

# The Social Studies

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Continuing *The Historical Outlook*

March, 1942

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# The Social Studies

*Continuing The Historical Outlook*

VOLUME XXXIII, NUMBER 3

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## Some Teaching Problems in the Social Studies

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The first problem of the social studies teacher is the necessity of getting a clear sense of direction. To say that to the casual observer the social order today presents a spectacle of confusion is to state the case mildly. Even to the thoughtful student of social problems, it is not altogether easy to reconcile all the forces that appear in conflict with each other.

Looking about us we see hunger in a land of plenty, a reckless race for armaments by a population who desired peace, unemployment where production is far below capacity, fear of inception of other forms of government in a country founded and perpetuated upon the principle of democracy, an abiding faith in education but a confirmed distrust for learning, interdependence of peoples and nations recognized in theory but ruthless competition and individualism followed in practice. These and many similar illustrations suggest to us that the race between education and catastrophe has not yet ended.

The possibilities of education in influencing social progress and direction has been recognized throughout the ages. The importance of education and enlightenment for the well-being of a democracy has been recognized in our own country from the early patriots down to the present. The school is increas-

ingly recognized as a social instrument as may be inferred from the amount of discussion on the subject and from the numerous attempts to use the school as an agency for reform and propaganda by persons ranging from individuals in the local community to groups in the state legislature.

The unique nature of the social studies places a premium upon the proper orientation of the teacher. Whether the school should assume responsibility for giving direction to social change is a major problem. The exact manner by which the school has influenced social progress in past decades has never been thoroughly explained. In order to encourage a naïve faith in education the school took credit for social progress and made extravagant claims of its own importance. With the coming of the depression and its accompanying social and economic dislocations the school has been slow to accept responsibility for the situation. In view of its past claims it has had to face charges of failure and there has been some disposition to discredit democracy itself. At the same time we hear agitations for a new social order and demands to the effect that education should do it. While the writer is willing to admit that education may have failed to measure up to all of its poten-

tialities in the past, he believes that neither education nor democracy has been given a real trial. For this reason he feels the first problem of the social science teacher is to get a clear vision of the meaning of democracy and a conception of the possibility of the schools to contribute effectively to its preservation and improvement. The progressive teacher must be animated by a dynamic philosophy of education and undergirded by a fundamental conception of the modern social order.

A second teaching problem in the social studies is that of organization of the curriculum. For a considerable time it was taken for granted that schooling would result automatically in an understanding of social problems and in a disposition to solve them constructively. The idea prevailed that by building a background for the pupil, an understanding of contemporary life would come later on and somewhat automatically. Consequently, the social studies gave major emphasis to the origin and evolution of cultures with the centers of the curriculum being remote from the pupil in either time or place.

With the realization that knowledge and techniques learned in the social studies do not transfer automatically, there came the demand for revising the curriculum to give direct attention to current problems. One plan for doing this has been to teach current problems by the addition of courses or units. This frequently takes the form of community civics in the junior high school and problems of democracy in the senior high school. Sometimes a few special units on thrift, conservation, or crime prevention are added to already existing courses.

While this arrangement has some merits, in itself it is no sure guarantee that the social studies will provide maximum opportunities for pupils to develop the attitudes and methods of work which will enable them to participate constructively in the social order. It is not in keeping with modern principles of teaching to insist that subject matter should be mastered in systematic courses and later applied to problems. Organization of each course into problems has been suggested as a means to vitalize it. For instance, history becomes more meaningful when presented in problematic situations so as to reveal the efforts of the race in dealing with the problems of the past.

Very few social problems can be solved within the scope of one subject. This brings up the question as to how the various subjects should be related to each other. Three plans of curriculum organization have been recognized as ways of overcoming the isolation of subjects. First, we may have a correlated curriculum where materials may be drawn from several related subjects to solve a problem or to complete an essential idea. Second, in a unified social studies curriculum the separate social studies such as history, geography, and civics, lose their identity as such and

all the materials in this field are fused and organized into a three or four-year sequence. The third plan, known as the integrated curriculum, attempts a functional synthesis of all subject matter taught by the school organized around certain centers of interest. Where this plan is suggested, social situations usually serve as cores or centers of interest for the organization.

Each school should be aware of the merits and limitations of each form of organization and adopt that plan which most effectively meets its own situation. Any plan adopted should not become stereotyped and serve as an end in itself, but the key idea should be to give pupils those experiences which will carry over most effectively into out-of-school situations.

Another teaching problem which presents itself frequently in the social studies is to determine what facts pupils are supposed to learn in each course. This problem is accentuated partly because of the superabundance of material available in the social studies. With the prevailing emphasis upon the importance of thinking, some teachers fail to realize the importance of facts in the scheme of things.

The controversy over teaching pupils facts versus teaching them to think must be understood in its historical setting. It may be recalled that when our present system of group teaching was introduced the conceptions of education which determined the nature of teaching were not the same as today. One of the concepts prevalent at that time made education equivalent to the acquisition of knowledge from books. Ability to relate facts was confused with understanding. Recent conceptions of education recognize the importance of a flexible adjustable personality capable of meeting new situations. This ability to meet new situations involves thinking. In our enthusiasm for teaching pupils how to think we may easily neglect to recognize the essential nature of the thought process.

The problem of how many facts to teach may be clarified somewhat by reference to the content of the social studies from two standpoints. We may refer to the social studies as ideas, understandings, or concepts constituting the nature and meaning of experience. For instance, the Texas state course of study in the social studies considers the following as groups of significant ideas: democracy, interdependence, change, values, adaptations, control over nature, and shifting population. The following are classed as functions involving social relations: producing, distributing, communicating and transporting, controlling, achieving mental and physical health, recreating, experiencing and expressing the beautiful and useful, and learning. These generalized concepts suggest objectives for the social studies and serve as clues to organization of subject matter for teaching purposes.



On the other hand we might think of the social studies as extensive bodies of factual information. These factual data serve as the foundation upon which ideas are based. We may think of the course of study in the social studies as simply a body of selected factual information organized for teaching purposes in such a way as when experienced through pupil activity will result in the ideas, understandings, and attitudes which the social studies are trying to develop. We first select the ideas to be developed and then the factual information which will most likely function to produce these ideas when brought into proper focus. The various parts of the course of study organized in such a functional way are frequently referred to as teaching units.

We would say then that knowledge of facts and ability to think are complementary. Ability to think depends not only upon intelligence and interest of the pupil but also upon his acquaintance with facts related to the problem on which he is thinking. We would hasten to add that the way the pupil has learned the facts is important. For instance, it is conceivable that a student may be able to recite all the facts in a current events paper yet be unable to recognize or to think very little about the current social problems of our country. One of the greatest challenges of the teacher comes in assisting the pupil to recognize and organize facts in such a way that they have meaning.

We may conclude then, that effective thinking requires a ready command of facts not learned by rote but intelligently conceived. Just what particular facts will be most useful to a particular class for mastering relationships and using them in the solving of problems should always be of major concern to the social studies teacher.

Another teaching problem in the social studies centers around the question of evaluating and testing results. When knowledge of facts was the primary goal of teaching, a test of factual knowledge was perhaps an adequate evaluating device. But, if in addition to developing civic information, we are concerned with civic interests and attitudes, ability to summarize and interpret social data, ability to apply facts and principles, and ability to recognize significant problems, the question arises as to how these outcomes may be evaluated. Since the informational test is inadequate and may even defeat its own purposes, it should be supplanted by devices that measure the varied objectives of teaching.

The purpose of evaluating and testing is to determine the amount of change that has taken place within the pupils. Evaluation is to ascertain the growth that has taken place in the direction of the various goals that were set up as objectives. If our objectives involve civic traits and social characteristics we attempt to find out how pupils have improved in

these respects as a result of the course in social studies. We might ask these questions: "Is a pupil a better citizen because he has taken a course in history or civics?" "Is a pupil's efficiency as a member of society directly proportional to the number of courses he has had in the social studies?"

Our difficulty in evaluating results of teaching in the social studies resolves itself to the difficulty of devising valid tests involving standard social situations. While a few standardized tests have attempted to evaluate these dynamic outcomes, teachers must rely mostly upon informal classroom tests of their own devising. Tests must be devised to measure the ability to collect valid and reliable data, ability to analyze, evaluate and summarize facts, ability to make inferences and arrive at generalizations, ability to recognize problems and test tentative conclusions before they are accepted, not to mention outcomes in the form of interests, attitudes, and working skills.

We must evaluate many outcomes by indirect methods. Evaluation is a comprehensive term and implies the use of devices other than tests. Standardized tests and informal tests must be supplemented by informal questioning, by observation, by interviews, and by making and keeping records of significant experiences and events in the lives of pupils. At all times, evaluation must give consideration to objectives. It involves a two-fold process of getting a clear-cut conception of anticipated outcomes and devising methods of ascertaining the extent to which they have been achieved.

A constant problem coming to the attention of the teacher is the necessity of assisting the pupil in developing certain skills for work and study. One of the most prominent of these is the ability to read. It is not uncommon to find high school pupils who have failed to develop reading skills in the elementary school. Enthusiasm for visual and oral methods of instruction in the elementary school may have deprived them of acquiring these skills. Undue emphasis upon some type of reading such as recreational may have prevented the pupil from developing skill in the work type reading.

Even if the elementary school has contributed properly to reading ability, still some emphasis must be given to it in the secondary school. No less an authority than Charles H. Judd says that the elementary school trains pupils in the art of reading, while the high school should acquaint them with the many branches and varieties of this art.

If we accept reading in its very highest concept to mean the active interpretation of thought from the printed page in terms of the author's purpose, we can see how the pupil may profit from guidance in a form that is unique to each subject taught in the secondary school. In that case each high school teacher is a teacher of reading to which the social

studies teacher is no exception. In fact, the social studies is a rather fertile field for giving pupils assistance in developing reading ability of the highest type.

Recent emphasis upon teaching by the unit method has magnified the importance of a wide variety of reading skills such as using an index, using reference books, scanning a chapter, reading technical material, and taking notes. Effective use of the unit method in the social studies has not only required a supply of reading materials, thus encouraging a disbanding of the textbook method, but at the same time it has required pupils to be skilled in using a number of other resources. We may consider the community as the social studies laboratory where contacts may be made and data obtained from institutions, industries, museums, governmental offices, and all phases of social, economic, and political life. Where these are not available directly, pupils may have indirect access to them by slides, motion pictures, and other visual means. Social studies teachers have the problem not only of being alert to the most vital materials, but also of assuring themselves that pupils have those habits and skills of work and study to use the various sources with maximum efficiency.

Another teaching problem is that of managing the classroom so as to produce the most socially efficient individual. When our present plan of class instruction was taking form during the past century, individualism was the key note of American democracy and social and economic efficiency. In fact, group instruction came into being in this country as a teaching device whereby a high pupil-teacher ratio made possible the teaching of large numbers of pupils with low instructional cost. It was not designed as a method of preparing future citizens of a modern democratic social order. With our ideal of democracy giving emphasis to cooperation, this leads to a reconsideration of the relation of the school to the function of producing a socially efficient individual.

As emphasis is placed upon the social functions of education the organization and management of the class for instructional purposes must assume some responsibility for contributing to this objective. In addition to believing that learning takes place most effectively in a social setting, it is believed the best preparation of an individual for some future society is to live now as though he were already in that society. These assumptions give us not only the motives for the socialized recitation but also imply some principles that its features should incorporate.

One of the vital features that must be present in any form of classroom management designed to give opportunities in practicing social cooperation is pupil responsibility. The ability to assume responsibility like the ability to use freedom is a type of achieve-

ment. The absurdity of obtaining it by decree may be demonstrated by multiplied illustrations. The premium placed upon it in the social order reinforces its importance in the educational program.

In addition to meeting approved standards of conduct and cooperation, high school pupils have a need for developing self-reliance for their own program and their own success. Kilpatrick emphasized this point when he said that pupils should have experience in formulating their own purposes, in making and executing their own plans to achieve these objectives, and in evaluating their own efforts. It must be admitted that this is a long-time undertaking upon which should be focused the entire high school program, but the social science teacher has unusual opportunities to contribute to its success.

The place of pupil activity in the classroom frequently presents a teaching problem in the social studies. According to our modern conception, learning is an active process involving the continuous reconstruction of experience by the interaction of the interests and purposes of the individual with his environment. Just what *amount* of activity and what *types* of pupil activity are considered desirable in the modern classroom is a fundamental question. Because of the prominent place of pupil activity in progressive teaching today it is easy to over-estimate and misinterpret its real significance.

From one viewpoint the social studies curriculum is merely a set of pupil experiences. In other words, the activities which pupils experience in their reaction to subject matter determines what they learn from it. Obviously, mental activity is fundamental to any consideration of pupil learning. But the exact place of physical activity in the classroom is not always so clearly evident.

Practice on those skills and habits predominantly motor in nature which are regarded as outcomes would seem to be in order, since these activities are of practical value to the pupils. Second, some activities have value in that they give a concrete foundation for ideas and thinking. The manipulation of materials, use of visual aids, demonstrations, and excursions provide a foundation for vital learning. Third, sometimes activity is used to encourage a whole hearted participation on the part of the pupils since some high school pupils fail to recognize that learning is a normal part of life. It is these motivating activities about which serious questions frequently arise. In all instances of planning pupil activity the teacher must remember that without activity learning does not take place, that activity is not a substitute for learning, that all activities are not equally educative, and that purposeless activity is uneconomical.

Many teaching problems have gone unmentioned in this discussion, but space precludes extending the

list. Progressive social science teachers must meet two challenges today. First, there is the challenge of the pupil—active, innocent, with unrealized potentialities. How shall we educate him to combine tolerant understanding of the social order and creative self-expression? This makes teaching an art, higher than which there is none other. Second, there is the chal-

lenge of the social order—changing, dynamic, with its destiny undetermined. How shall we arrange our scale of values to give due recognition to humanity in the world and allow each individual to be born again into the best of the American tradition? This makes teaching more than a job, more than a profession; it makes it a crusade.

## The Integrated Program

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Although most of us believe that the idea of integration is new, in reality it is not so. Educators urged teachers to combine their school subjects sixty years ago. The integration of subjects is not generally practiced in the secondary field even today, but a few junior high schools are now recognizing its value.

Many arguments that arise in education are due to the lack of a specialized vocabulary. Doctors, lawyers, and dentists have a scientific language that is interpreted the same by all in the particular profession. Educators, however, have worded our philosophy in terms that may be understood by the layman as well as by the teacher. The result has brought about misunderstanding in the use of terms and their interpretation.

For the past number of years we have heard the expressions *integration*, *fusion* and *correlation* used interchangeably. In my opinion no one term covers the field. We strive for the three attributes in what we call our integrated program. We use *fusion* to show that each tiny piece of knowledge blends into a pattern. We strive for *correlation* in order to show the relationship between studies and the dependence of one on the other. *Integration* is the process of making our picture whole, and is also the result of passing from a complex and unstable state of unrelated bits of information to one that is relatively simple and stable. Children and adults alike are confused by a mass of unrelated facts that must be learned or memorized without knowing the complete story.

Integration really resembles a jig saw puzzle that has been completed. When a puzzle of two or three hundred pieces is strewn on the table a feeling of confusion might come over even a keen-minded person. The little queer-shaped figures mean nothing in themselves. Just so is unrelated knowledge hard to digest. As the pieces of the puzzle go together and each part blends into another, we have fusion; as each piece is dependent on another, we have correlation; and as the puzzle grows in proportion and we see the tiny bits making a whole—the

puzzle passing from a complex state to a simple one—we have integration. The completed picture means something and therefore is of real use. It is impossible to learn what the whole is like from a small part of that whole. This, then, is the aim of our integrated program—to give our boys and girls a complete picture and not just a part of one.

For the past five years we have been working with English and social studies in our integrated curriculum. The pupil remains in the English and social studies room for a double period of ninety minutes. In each period the pupils work on projects pertaining to the two subjects. In our particular program, the social studies is the core of the curriculum and the English is taught in relation to it. There is no subject line drawn between the two studies as they are so closely related that they merge into each other.

The social studies field falls into place as the pivot of our work, for it includes the entire gamut of human life and endeavor. The term, social studies, implies the development of a social point of view and includes those experiences which are provided by the school primarily for the purpose of extending the child's social understanding of the world in which he lives. Under this interpretation almost any known subject can be included.

The problems faced in this program were many. The biggest problem confronting the teacher and the most difficult to overcome was to adjust oneself to the new regime. The children did not suffer the pangs I experienced as textbooks were no longer the foundation of the work. Neither did they worry about how we were to fit in certain pieces of literature, grammar, letter writing, and journalism. Though we are not expected to follow any one textbook, we still retain a social studies book, a literature book, and a grammar.

My first class happened to be a 7A group that was to study the Middle Ages as the first unit of work. As I looked through our seventh year literature book such selections as Mary Dodge's *Silver*



Skates, Thomas Aldrich's *Story of a Bad Boy*, poems of nature by Robert Frost, Edna St. Vincent Millay and countless others met my agonized gaze. The long narrative poem that hadn't been read by the pupils but was in our textbook—which meant a great deal to me at the time—was Longfellow's "Courtship of Miles Standish." Now my problem was how to reconcile such selections to our unit on the medieval period.

Of course the only thing to do was to abandon the selected literature book and go further for our appreciative reading. It soon became apparent that we would have to depend on the library period. The boys and girls enjoyed reading fiction about the days of chivalry. The group as a whole became acquainted with the stories of *The Knights of the Round Table* and Tennyson's *Idylls of the King*. As the library had a limited number of these books we couldn't read any of the selections as a class. Therefore, the method of teaching had to be changed. The reading served as a good basis for much of our class activity. Some children told stories they had read to the class, or submitted written reviews; others prepared stories for audience reading, and committees dramatized stories for the entire group. This method provides countless means to take care of individual differences that would not be possible if one textbook were used. Many members of the class brought books on the Middle Ages from home; others went to libraries outside the school to get additional copies. In this way a small room library can be formed for practically any period under discussion.

The pupil in this unit studied the history of the Middle Ages in his own and other reference books; he read stories dealing with the period with which he had become familiar in his history work; he had subjects for his oral and written English; and he had the opportunity to let his imagination run riot in one of the most romantic periods of history. Around this one phase of social studies a great deal of work can be done in manual arts and drawing. Moving pictures, slides, sketches, and visits to the local art museums help to make this period a real one to the pupils. From one of the discussions on this unit concerning the chivalry and courtesy of the knight grew material for written compositions and an opportunity for stimulating class argument. One girl in the class naively brought up the question: "Why aren't the men courteous to ladies any more?" This brought about a great deal of reaction on the part of the boys and the present social and economic causes were analyzed and discussed. Each boy was actually glad to air his views in a written essay on "My Ideal Girl" and each girl to write one on "My Ideal Boy." Some of the papers were read aloud and criticized. The battle waged between the two sexes long after the problem was dropped in class.

Much the same opportunities present themselves in each social studies unit. Even the diesel engine and the history of iron girders and rivets can be supplemented and romanticized. Poems by Carl Sandburg, Vachel Lindsay, and Louis Untermeyer gain meaning in the eyes of the most prosaic child when read with a proper background. We humans only appreciate those things we know something about.

The study of a foreign country becomes less cold and less of a dead thing when authors come to our aid with stories of that section. For instance, China is just a place on the map to most seventh grade children. It is granted that many history and geography books devote pages to that country telling of its strange customs, people, ideas, and religion. However, the full flavor of China is felt when such a book as Elizabeth Lewis' *Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze* is read.

Young Fu is a child, the age of the children in junior high school classes. His struggles against old China become their struggles. They go through Young Fu's apprenticeship in the metal shop, really living the meaning of the word "apprentice." The difference is sharply felt between the highly mechanized United States and agricultural China where a thing in order to possess real beauty and worth must be unique regardless of the time taken to create it. The children follow Young Fu through the old streets of China, smelling strange smells, seeing strange things, gazing into shop windows on Thief Street, and even praying to the "Kitchen God" for favors. They sympathize with Young Fu when he tries to break away from the teachings of his custom-bound mother. The black curving line on the map of China bearing the name of Yangtze River gains importance in the eyes of the child. Young Fu lived on its banks; he crossed it with a heavy heart to escape the shame that he was to bring his mother on the Chinese New Year's Day. China is real, children play, laugh, and get into trouble there just as they do at home. History and geography books on China are now read with more sympathy, tolerance, and understanding.

Current events, of course, are always used as a further aid in the study and understanding of any phase of social studies. Every history teacher has had the question asked him: "Why do we have to study history?" The pupils soon come to see that out of a knowledge of the past comes an understanding of present day problems and a forecast of the future ones. As far as literature and current events to go with American history are concerned, the supply is so plentiful that the only drawback is lack of time. Newspaper articles, current magazines, and radio broadcasts are an excellent and popular supplement to the study of any phase of American life. Stories of



Indians, colonial life, the Civil War, the cattle country, and gold rush days are plentiful. Each subject draws upon the other to enrich itself. Each piece dovetails into another, forming a pattern that means something to the child.

Another serious problem that confronted me was how to teach correct English usage in such a program. Functional grammar is needed by everyone no matter what type of work he may do. We must use words correctly both in written and oral discourse in order to be understood. Language is still our chief means of communicating with each other. Through constant use correct speaking and writing habits may be formed. The first step in helping the pupil to use his words correctly is to make him conscious of good English usage. A method I found that stimulated a great deal of interest was to talk over the mistakes that the children themselves make. We all know that a pupil can sometimes learn more from his companions than he can from a teacher. Under this supposition the class will readily consent to the idea of helping each other with their everyday English.

If the students correct each other both in their play and in their classes they will soon stop making the same errors over and over again. These errors may be written on slips of paper with the corrected form and put into a class box. One day a week these boxes are opened and a lesson in grammar can be had—not around sentences in a book—but on the actual grammatical needs, characteristic of children in a particular locality. Specific exercises for individual children are given when needed and the child who doesn't need the practice may spend his time in some other way. The teacher can enter in this campaign by asking the children to listen also for errors in her speech. At the end of a twelve-week period the class is extremely conscious of good English usage. The only drawback to this plan is too great a zeal on the part of the pupils in "catching up" people who should know better. The battle, however, is more than half won when the children are quick to realize their own errors and are able to correct them.

The problem of written compositions is easily solved. The social studies lend themselves excellently to written English. From the vast storehouse of history and geography enough material is provided so that the child has something to say. One of the greatest drawbacks to the traditional English class is that the pupil does not know what to write. Many an English teacher herself might be at a loss if asked to write a theme on "My Backyard" or "A Day at the Circus."

In the traditional history class the teacher is exasperated when papers that are handed in are full of errors in spelling, grammar, and sentence structure. Under the integrated program the students are helped with the material, the vocabulary, and the

written form of the theme. After a pupil has been studying a certain unit for a period of time, he has enough information that he is not at a loss as to what to say. For instance, if the children are studying the colonial period, they have enough material at hand to write in an informative or in an imaginative manner. For example, one pupil may choose to write a theme made up of a group of paragraphs containing purely factual material. Another child may choose a subject such as Bacon's Rebellion and write it as an interesting newspaper article. Still another may imagine himself a member of one of the early colonies and write a diary, letter, or story of his experiences.

Most of the pupils like the integrated program. Some do go through a period of adjustment and ask the question: "When do we have English?" It doesn't take long for them to realize, however, that all our classes are conducted in English. In such a program there is more of a chance for personal contact between the child and the teacher. When a teacher and a class work together for a ninety minute period five days a week, a feeling of companionship between the two is inevitable. The bewildered seventh-grader fresh from a progressive elementary school welcomes a familiar note in the strange atmosphere of the junior high school. As has been stated before, the ninety minute period allows the teacher to care more thoroughly for the individual differences in her pupils than the forty-five minute period.

The teacher has to familiarize herself with a great deal of material in order to help the students find their information. Many times books for a particular unit of work have to be ordered ahead of time and the available material marked.

This type of program requires a great deal of clerical work. As there are no books that fuse the two subjects, mimeographed copies of each unit must be provided. The unit is merely a suggestive outline of the work that may be done, as extra material is added as the need arises. The pupil, however, in this way can work at his own rate of speed and the superior one has plenty of extra activities to keep him interested. All the necessary fundamentals must be included in each unit. Questions or phases to be considered are put under each main heading in the units used by the children to aid them in their reading and research. The purpose of the unit is to give our study an impetus to a proper and logical end.

After working with integrated classes for almost five years, I would recommend the method highly to any school system that is contemplating a change. From standardized tests given last spring we learned that our pupils in the seventh and eighth grades are above the norm group in their reading comprehen-

sion. The pupils in the integrated classes showed a marked progress over the pupils enrolled in the traditional classes. This type of teaching, of course, is not perfect nor can it work miracles. We do not think it a panacea for all educational ills. However,

we can say that it does meet the need of the individual better than the traditional method of teaching social studies and English, as it is a more natural and logical process in a psychological sense.

## The Importance of Distribution in High School Economics

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Economic maladjustment has been prevalent in the world for some time. The inability of industry to sell all of its products has been the prime cause for unemployment in recent years. Recent economic studies such as those of the Brookings Institution of Washington, D.C., and those of Professor W. I. King show great inequalities in the distribution of income in the United States. It is my contention that lack of equitable distribution of income as a principal cause of unemployment should receive a front line place in the attention of high school teachers of economics. I also contend that textbooks in high school economics should emphasize very decidedly the relationship between income and the ability of the people to consume goods.

What are the facts about the relationship of proper distribution to economic prosperity? What are the economic characteristics of the power age? This age is characterized by the use of large amounts of capital and natural resources in the production of goods on a mass production basis. The present age emphasizes the changes that have taken place since the disappearance of the handicraft system. Laborers generally are separated from their tools and work in factories owned by others. There is a very high degree of specialization which makes workers more and more interdependent. Economic maladjustments in one industry are more quickly felt in other industries than heretofore. The power age is, therefore, an age in which comparatively few people produce for their own consumption; it is an age in which most people are forced to buy what they need out of the wages which they secure for their services. It is an age in which the economic system is peculiarly sensitive to shifts in purchasing power or to any lessening of purchasing power on the part of consumers. It is an age in which the industrial system depends upon a very wide buying public to buy in such quantities as will make the economies of mass production effective.

Want in the midst of plenty has been a characteristic of our economic society in recent years. We have witnessed in the last ten years instances where there was want of food at the same time that farmers had apparently produced too much. Crop control was started at a time when there were millions of people in the country poorly clothed and inadequately fed. Factories with the capacity to make consumers' goods were running only part time or were closed entirely at a time when there were many people in the country in dire need. Want in the midst of plenty could be explained, therefore, only on the basis that the people who wished to buy goods did not have the money to do so.

In a textbook in *Problems of American Democracy* the economic inequalities which characterize our times are described on the basis of a study made by the Brookings Institution. Says the text:

Despite such evidences of prosperity which present themselves as we survey the American scene we are actually aware of the fact that this prosperity has not been equally distributed among the people of the United States. Nor has it been smoothly distributed over periods of time. . . .

Even at best American prosperity has been described as "spotty" in character. There are decided inequalities in the ownership of national wealth and in the distribution of the national income. A peculiar paradox of our modern economic order is that there is often "want in the midst of plenty." Despite the advantages of the machine, millions of our people have not enjoyed its benefits; many workers have suffered unemployment from its competition.

In 1934 the Brookings Institution published the result of its investigation into the economic facts underlying the depression of the 1930's.

This report showed that one fundamental reason for the dislocation of the economic system was the fact that the purchasing power of millions of our people was limited to the necessities of life and many were unable to provide themselves even with them. In 1929, when prosperity had reached its peak and the national income amounted to 81 billion dollars, there were 6 million families trying to live on \$1000 a year or less. Of the 28 million families in the United States, 20 million received less than \$2500 a year; and of these 20 million families, 12 million received less than \$1500 a year. Estimates have indicated that 11 per cent of the national income was distributed to 42 per cent of the population, while 29 per cent of the national income was distributed to the richest 2½ per cent of the population.

Estimates of the ownership of the great wealth of the United States also indicate glaring inequalities. In 1927, a typical year in the period of prosperity before the great depression, Professor W. I. King estimated that the poorest people in the United States, that is, those owning less than \$3,500 worth of wealth, made up 65 per cent of our population but owned only 15 per cent of the national wealth; whereas the richest people, that is, those owning \$50,000, or more wealth, made up only 2 per cent of our population, but owned 40 per cent of the national wealth. The so-called middle class made up 33 per cent of the population and owned 45 per cent of the wealth of the country.

From these studies it would appear that the great problem of our modern economic order is not the question of how to produce more efficiently so much as the question of how to distribute more effectively the national income produced. Otherwise our great national prosperity will continue to be undermined by glaring economic inequality. Prosperity must be better diffused over all groups of people and better maintained over all periods of time. The failure to create, to distribute, and sustain purchasing power means economic stagnation. Low incomes mean poverty, crime, slums, sickness, lack of educational and recreational facilities, and poor citizenship; in short, social degradation.<sup>1</sup>

Now the great danger in teaching high school economics is to assume that a more equitable distribution of income during our prosperous period would have solved our problem. Of course better distribution would have helped, but in order to

make our economic system healthy we must have more than that. We must have not only a more equitable manner of distributing income, but we must also expand production at the same time. In a study of income and its relation to economic progress, Dr. Harold G. Moulton discusses the distribution side of the economic process. He says that during the period of our greatest economic prosperity the consumptive requirements or wants of our people were far from satisfied. Says Dr. Moulton:

The value of the total national production of goods and services in 1929, if divided equally among the entire population, would have given each person approximately \$665. . . .

To raise the incomes of the 19.4 million families receiving less than \$2,500 in 1929 to a \$2,500 level, with no change in the incomes of the families receiving more than that amount would have required an increase in national production of more than 16 billion dollars. A horizontal increase of \$1,000 in the income of all families receiving less than \$5,000 in 1929 would necessitate an expansion of production to the extent of over 25 billion dollars. To give all families of the nation a "reasonable standard" of living, such as is set forth in the studies made by the Bureau of Home Economics of the United States Department of Agriculture, would have necessitated an increase in production over 1929 levels of approximately 75 per cent. The full utilization of our productive capacity, it will be recalled, would have permitted an increase in production of only 20 per cent, or 15 billion dollars. We were clearly not confronted in 1929 with overproduction, either actual or potential. The desires of the people were vastly greater than could have been satisfied by the productive power then available.<sup>2</sup>

In spite of the facts stated in the preceding paragraph, Dr. Moulton points out that:

The market demand for consumption goods was less than our capacity to supply such demand. That is to say, while we could not have supplied all the goods that were *desired* by the people, we were able to furnish a larger volume than the people were willing or able to purchase with the incomes which they had available. A substantially greater output of consumption goods would undoubtedly have resulted, had the market demands of consumers been larger.

Great inequalities in incomes make for great inequalities in savings. Dr. Moulton points out that

<sup>1</sup> S. Howard Patterson, A. W. Selwyn Little, and Henry Reed Burch, *Problems in American Democracy* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941), pp. 262-263.

<sup>2</sup> Harold G. Moulton, *Income and Economic Progress* (Washington D.C.: The Brookings Institution, 1935), pp. 36ff.



out of fifteen billion dollars of individual savings in 1929, thirteen billions were made by ten per cent of the population. While excess savings in the higher income group do not necessarily result in over-capitalization of industry, the fact that such a small portion of the population control so much of the wealth, tends to make adequate consumption by the lower income groups difficult if not impossible.

Of fourteen textbooks in high school economics which I examined only one discussed the relationship between proper distribution and consumption and the relationship between consumptive power and economic prosperity. Only two of these fourteen books mentioned the Brookings Institution studies on income.

This means, then, that the average teacher of high school economics will have to dig out these facts from the recent studies. Needed newer emphases with regard to the relationship of income distribution may be summarized *briefly* as follows:

1. Large portions of our population receive comparatively small incomes.
2. The ability of industry to continue to produce depends upon the ability of the people to spend, and this, in turn, depends upon adequate income.
3. To insure adequate income it is not enough merely to *redistribute* more equitably the income. Industry must produce more goods

to assure an adequate income to all.

4. Any scheme for curtailing production is directly opposed to economic welfare for the masses since the only way that you can increase income is to increase production.
5. There is a limit to the consumptive capacity of man, and hence, excessive savings by the higher income groups tend to slow up the economic machine, thus making for decline and depression.

It is true that once again we reach full employment and that incomes have increased. This, I submit, is a result of our defense and war efforts and I sadly fear, as do many economists, that when military and naval efforts cease, we shall have a recession and a down-swing of the business cycle. Then, indeed, will industry be forced to adjust itself to purely economic demands. These will depend upon the consumptive capacity of the people. If we are to have democracy in America it must be a democracy which will assure economic security. The greatest enemy of democracy, as the present war so well illustrates is economic insecurity. Without an understanding of the necessity of proper distribution of income in keeping our industrial machine going, we are fighting a losing fight with depression. It is not too early to plan for peace economics. A study of income and its effect upon our economic life is the first step in the great task of readjustment that will follow the war.

## Varieties of Lesson Planning in the Social Studies

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Methods of teaching cannot be successfully planned without some reasonable knowledge of the type of child who is to be taught. Individual differences and group differences should be taken into account in planning a lesson, for a well-planned lesson which may be successful with one group may work havoc upon another.

As Professor Horn has stated:

Students . . . vary from feeble-mindedness to geniuses; in economic status from extreme poverty to extreme wealth; in environment, from the isolated home in the pioneer fringe to the congested area in the city; from communities that are wholly American to those that are almost wholly foreign, and from neighborhoods whose pattern of life encourages good citizenship to those that encourage lawlessness; in

home surroundings from the highly cultivated to the illiterate, and from the luxurious to the destitute; in social outlook from rich opportunities that seem reasonably assured to faint hopes of success to be reached by almost super-human efforts; in educational opportunities from facilities of the most restricted nature to those almost unlimited in their possibilities. All these variations are reflected in the social habits, backgrounds of experience, interests, abilities, and ways of thinking that must be utilized in the social studies.<sup>1</sup>

It is with these various types of pupils that we come in contact, and our procedural techniques

<sup>1</sup> Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937), pp. 40-41.



should be adjusted to take care of every type of boy or girl, whether dull, normal, or bright.

Courses of study are often arranged to deal with these groupings in diverse combinations; but assuming that a teacher does have some classes that would belong in the bright zone, others in the dull, or combinations of the two with each other and with normal or average children, how may the types of lessons vary for the average, below average, and above average pupils? The various treatises on social studies teaching techniques emphasize the adaptation of the lesson and of the teacher to the individual and group differences of the class. In planning the lesson, that element should be taken into account. There is no one method for carrying on a recitation. As Dr. Woolf Colvin, Chairman of Social Studies at the Eastern District High School, has stated: "Variety itself is the source of interest. Teachers should experiment with other than the usual form of question and answer recitation." Regardless of whatever method is employed, the pupil should be given the maximum participation in the acquisition of those knowledges, skills, and attitudes which the teacher is endeavoring to achieve for him. The type of lesson used should depend upon the end to be attained.

Thus far the introductory background has been laid; now let us proceed to the types of lessons.

Open textbook supervised study lessons have been used successfully with backward pupils. The teacher can devote individual attention to the special, individual problems of each pupil. Suggestions are made to the pupils of an encouraging nature. It is a good opportunity to bring about a more sympathetic understanding and a better rapport between pupil and teacher. It is most successfully employed with difficult work, or in the acquisition of some knowledge which could not be mastered away from the teacher's guidance in the classroom. It has several weaknesses which the teacher should guard against. First, the child may be turning pages to a part of the text other than the part which he is supposed to be studying. Secondly, the teacher is likely to use it as a type of study period for himself, rather than as a help for the pupil. Placing a time limit on the pupil's reading of the material assigned, and a written guidance outline for the pupils may eliminate some of the weaknesses inherent in this type of planned lesson. Although the open textbook method has been suggested primarily for backward pupils, it may be used to greater advantage with brighter pupils, for they may be able to accomplish so much more from the suggestions of the teacher.

The writer has successfully used blackboard work for review purposes, with backward, average, and bright classes. He found it well-liked by all the pupils involved. The pupils should be made aware of its desirability from the point of view of being

able to profit from the errors which are found in written expression, as well as to be able to express themselves in writing, suggestions for improvement coming from the class. It utilizes the motor, visual, and auditory senses to a great degree. Many modifications of the method may be employed, but whichever techniques are used, the question should be clearly understood by the pupil. The practice should be encouraged of having a specific time limit attached to the answering of the question. Outlines may not be used unless specified. If the aim of the teacher is to train the pupil in organization as well as in expression, then an outline may be profitably employed. It should be realized that if a pupil does not finish, he will be permitted to continue orally, but the basis must have been laid in the paragraph at the board. As a rule, the pupil uses no aids at the board unless told to do so. The questions should be written on cards, and distributed to the pupils either at the beginning of the period, or at the end of the previous recitation with instructions to "begin at once the next day when you arrive in class." Discussion normally would continue in class for about eight to ten minutes on some problem which would be significant to the children who are seated, but which may be easily assimilated in summarizing by all of the pupils who had been reciting at the board.

The blackboard work in review may involve the brighter pupils helping the weaker ones, while the teacher, or some pupil brighter than the others, takes groups to suggest improvements. Board work may also be used successfully as the basis for the new lesson once the review has been finished by the class. It is not suggested that this type of lesson be used exclusively. It may be used with some discretion, as all types of lessons should be used.

The respective forms of the socialized recitation are used by the writer with average and brighter pupils. Children love to talk, and many of our teachers fail to utilize the natural expressiveness of the children. The socialized recitation in its different forms may be part of the general school policy, for it is difficult to have such a recitation where most of the other classes in different subjects do everything contrary to the democratic and free and easy-going naturalness of the socialized recitation. It may be that a student chairman is conducting the leadership. It may be that the pupils are in a non-hand-raising class. Above all, it is not the outward evidences of what constitutes a socialized recitation, but the spirit of the type of recitation-naturalness that goes on in the classroom. The dangers inherent in a socialized type of recitation may be averted by intelligent leadership on the part of the teacher. The teacher oftentimes in such a type of recitation may be the brightest pupil in the class whom all respect and listen to with confidence. The socialized recitation may be used to excess. Some topics do not lend themselves to such

treatment. The discussion may become "flat," sometimes aimless; the children may be restless or listless. Other varieties of the socialized type of recitation are the group or panel discussion techniques.

In group discussion work, the children are divided into small groups, each of which is given some problem to discuss. One of the number is recognized as the chairman. He is to make his report to the full membership of the class later. Additional comments may be forthcoming from the full membership. A successful review was held by one class on this type of lesson. The review concerned itself with the social and cultural influences in America. Each little "committee" was given a problem to discuss. The pupils taught each other much about art, literature, and music. Another one of these forum-panel discussions was held on freedom of the press. The dangers are that the children will want to talk about what they did last night or about other extraneous matter, but this may be guarded against by creating a desirable spirit and attitude to want to have such panels. Also a time limit would prevent them from filibustering. The teacher moves from group to group, making suggestions occasionally after listening to some of the discussions within these small committees. It may be a wise policy, if held often, to change the membership of the groups so that the same ones are not always together; otherwise there may be a desire to bring in the extraneous matter. It also has the desirable aspect of making it possible for all of the children to acquaint themselves with different points of view. In these small committee arrangements, the teacher should guard against all of the bright children being in one group and all the dull in another. The greatest advantage of this technique is that every child participates actively in the recitation process. It is true that there may be some noise when the movable chairs are swung around, or when one hears occasional over-excitement or enthusiasm from one corner of the room; but that is to be expected.

A teacher is a great actor, but the children love to act too. Why not give them the chance? When the opportunity presents itself, have a dramatization in

class. The writer utilizes this form of expression considerably on some topics in all his classes. He recalls that several terms ago, the children in one class wanted to produce a play when discussing the problem of protecting life and property. The teacher permitted the children to do it. The children wrote a play on the Department of Sanitation. The dramatic motive was drawn into it by song numbers, but the children learned and appreciated the problems of the city and of the state when it was over. They had learned their lesson well. The subject of work of the courts, for first termers, always produces a lively interest when a mock trial is held. Every child participates.

Debates on many problems in all types of social studies classes are of keen delight to the youngsters. The danger is that too few will participate in this type of discussion. That may be guarded against by having no one set of teams, but the whole class participates in the debate, thereby allowing a maximum of participation by all of the pupils. Debate techniques may involve sophistries, but a skillful teacher will guard against argument for the sake of argument alone. The facts should be there too.

The laboratory method, the case method, the problem-solving method, the unit method, and others not mentioned here are to be used only when it is thought that the employment of that method will bring out the maximum participation on the part of the pupils, and the maximum in the acquisition of those skills, knowledges, and attitudes which we desire that they acquire. Together with all the methods used, the teacher should be constantly aware of the visual and auditory aids which he may use to make the lesson more effective and more realistic.

The writer suggests the utilization by the teacher of lesson plans which are found in *A Teaching Guide to the Social Studies*, edited by the Association of Teachers of the Social Studies of New York City (College Entrance Book Company). Teachers will find the lesson plans most informative, and most serviceable in the improvement of instruction.

## Geographic Games and Tests

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Past numbers of THE SOCIAL STUDIES have contained series of geographic games and tests planned for courses in geography, history and the social studies in general. The series will be continued throughout the school year.

The difficulty of the games may be increased by

omitting the answers found at the bottom of some of them, by putting a time limit on the completion of them, or by assigning them simply for study. There will be about 100 games in the entire series so that there is provided a wide range from which selection to fit particular needs may be made.

## G 41. VISITING SOUTH AMERICA

Below are listed some interesting features of this southern continent. Tell in the spaces provided where you would find each, and then be able to give, either a reason for the conditions or characteristics described or an important consequence of its existence there.

1. Most extensive beds of sodium nitrate to be found anywhere on earth. \_\_\_\_\_
2. A group of islands serving as a home for thousands of pelicans and cormorants. \_\_\_\_\_
3. A low rolling plateau covered in part with coffee plantations. \_\_\_\_\_
4. One of the world's most beautiful and commodious harbors. \_\_\_\_\_
5. The highest mountain peak in the whole western hemisphere. \_\_\_\_\_
6. A desert—perhaps the driest region on earth. \_\_\_\_\_
7. The world's highest lake that is used by steamboats. \_\_\_\_\_
8. A group of windswept islands almost entirely given over to sheep raising. \_\_\_\_\_
9. A 115-acre lake of asphalt. \_\_\_\_\_
10. The world's largest river as measured by the amount of water it carries. \_\_\_\_\_
11. An open forest whose trees yield one of the hardest woods, used chiefly for tannin. \_\_\_\_\_
12. One of the world's most productive petroleum fields. \_\_\_\_\_
13. A huge rich iron ore deposit scarcely used as yet. \_\_\_\_\_
14. One of the most inaccessible capital cities of the world. \_\_\_\_\_
15. A stream in which the water may flow in either direction to either one of two of the great river systems. \_\_\_\_\_
16. The world's highest standard gauge railroad. \_\_\_\_\_
17. A vast level plain devoted mostly to cereals and livestock. \_\_\_\_\_
18. A great tropical jungle containing rubber trees and many cabinet woods. \_\_\_\_\_
19. One of the world's most formidable mountain barriers. \_\_\_\_\_
20. A railway tunnel at an elevation of almost two miles. \_\_\_\_\_
21. One of the world's longest strips of fiorded coast line. \_\_\_\_\_
22. Trees yielding some of the world's lightest wood. \_\_\_\_\_
23. Extensive cotton fields under irrigation on a coastal plain. \_\_\_\_\_
24. Ruins of an ancient highly developed Indian civilization. \_\_\_\_\_
25. A great cold ocean current. \_\_\_\_\_

## G 42. LATIN AMERICAN RAW MATERIALS

The manufacturers of the commodities listed below may be much concerned with a raw material produced in part in Latin America. Name the raw material and the locality where it is chiefly produced.

Manufactured Articles	Raw Material from Latin America	Region of Latin America
1. Paint		
2. Platinum finger rings		
3. Leather		
4. Gasoline		
5. Candy		
6. Quinine		
7. Fertilizers		
8. Electric wire		
9. Tin plate		
10. Dentists' drugs		
11. Iron and steel		
12. Buttons		
13. Auto tires		
14. Furniture		
15. Coca-cola		
16. Cigars-cigarettes		
17. Flavoring extracts		
18. Soap		
19. Woolen textiles		
20. Flour		
21. Prepared meats		
22. Dyes		
23. Silverware		
24. Fur coats		
25. Aluminum		



## G 43. THIS REMINDS ME OF HOME!

Places and activities in South America that recall parts of North America.

Suppose a visitor from each of the parts of North America mentioned below should visit South America. Where in this latter continent would he be likely to say, "This reminds me of home?" Write in the name of the region in the spaces provided.

1. Coastal section of southern Alaska. \_\_\_\_\_
2. United States corn belt. \_\_\_\_\_
3. Cattle ranch on the Western Plains. \_\_\_\_\_
4. Chicago stockyards district. \_\_\_\_\_
5. Mexican plateau near the capital. \_\_\_\_\_
6. Sugar plantations of the Mississippi delta. \_\_\_\_\_
7. Irrigated cotton fields of Arizona-New Mexico. \_\_\_\_\_
8. Great Salt Lake. \_\_\_\_\_
9. Flax fields of the Prairie Provinces. \_\_\_\_\_
10. Copper mines of Arizona. \_\_\_\_\_
11. Valley of California. \_\_\_\_\_
12. Banana plantations of coastal Mexico. \_\_\_\_\_
13. Sheep ranches of Montana-Wyoming. \_\_\_\_\_
14. Treeless prairies of Iowa-Illinois. \_\_\_\_\_
15. The Rocky Mountains \_\_\_\_\_
16. The old Allegheny Plateau. \_\_\_\_\_
17. Oil fields of the Texas-Louisiana coast. \_\_\_\_\_
18. Kansas winter wheat fields. \_\_\_\_\_
19. Great American Desert. \_\_\_\_\_
20. San Francisco Bay, the harbor and port. \_\_\_\_\_

## G 44. ARE THESE CORRECT FOR SOUTH AMERICA?

Some of the following are correct, others incorrect. Do nothing with the former. For the latter, place an X in the margin to the left and by changing one or two words in the sentence correct it.

1. The location of the mountains and plains makes the streams flowing to the Atlantic best for navigation; those going to the Pacific, best for irrigation and power.
2. Most of the world's rubber supply comes from the Amazon basin.
3. The Andes are noted for their great height, their length, and the lack of low passes across them.
4. The Panama Canal is of greater use to the eastern coast of South America than it is to the western coast.
5. The chief natural disadvantage of South America is that about three-fourths of it is in the tropics.
6. When it is noon in this city, according to the sun, it is afternoon in all of South America.
7. The Peruvian Current makes the temperature of the west coast colder than it would otherwise be.
8. In northern South America people find the climate more comfortable on the plains; in the southern part of the continent, on the plateaus or upper mountain slopes.
9. Visitors in southern Argentina in July should be prepared for cold weather.
10. Buenos Aires is the leading coffee port of Brazil.
11. Christmas comes in the summer season in Argentina.
12. The most used river of South America is the Amazon.
13. The vast forests of the Amazon basin furnish large quantities of lumber to the rest of the world.
14. Exports from western South America are chiefly ores and minerals; from eastern South America, agricultural crops and animal products.
15. A population map of the continent shows most of the people to be living in the interior rather than near the coasts or margins of the continent.
16. In general, the continent is a contributor of raw materials; an importer of manufactured goods.
17. The principal desert region is on the windward side of the Andes mountains.
18. Argentina is the best developed country of South America; Brazil, however, has greater undeveloped resources.

# Revised Historical Viewpoints

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## WHO ELECTED LINCOLN?<sup>1</sup>

Joseph Schafer doubts that the Northwest foreign-born played a determinative role in the election of Lincoln. This is contrary to the view of Donnal V. Smith (*THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, January 1942). His doubts are based on a sampling of the *Wisconsin Domesday Book* which shows that German and Irish Catholic towns cast few votes for Lincoln, while even German Protestant towns favored Douglas.

One Catholic town, Marshfield, Fond du Lac county, had 239 family heads, of whom 229 were German. The vote as recorded in the *Wisconsin Blue Book* was Lincoln 6, Douglas 193. Cedarburg, in Ozaukee county, had 229 German family heads and 111 Irish. Seven did not belong to either group. The bulk of Cedarburg's Germans were Protestant. The vote was Lincoln 7, Douglas 299. A third Catholic town, Emmett, in Dodge county, had 180 Irish and German family heads, practically an equal number of each, against 34 Americans, 9 English, 13 Welsh and 1 British-American. Out of this total of 237 there were 55 votes for Lincoln and 155 for Douglas.

Three Protestant towns showed a preference for Douglas. Mequon, Ozaukee county, had 561 family heads of whom 459 were German and 30 Irish. The Americans and British numbered 31. Lincoln received 141 votes, Douglas 314. Herman, in Dodge county, had 401 family heads, of whom 337 were German and 11 Irish. Other groups totaled 53. The vote was 65 for Lincoln, 282 for Douglas. Another town of Herman, in Sheboygan county, was a colony solely of 355 German family heads of the German Reformed religion hailing from Lippe Detmold. In 1856 it had voted 201 for Buchanan and 27 for Fremont. In 1860 it gave Lincoln 122 and Douglas 210 votes.

A fair sampling of other towns fails to show any more favorable to Lincoln than the above. In general, as surely as the tally of the family head count in a precinct comes out as German, Irish or a combination of those two groups, the majority vote was Democratic. Conversely, communities of English, Scotch or Welsh ancestry were Republican. Those towns of native Americans from New England and New York stock were Republican, while those from Kentucky, Tennessee and Missouri were Democratic. Schafer cites the case of one Protestant community,

Rosendale, Fond du Lac county, as evidence of this religious-national origin pattern in voting. This town had 211 family heads of whom 140 were native Americans, 15 English, 1 Scotch, 15 Welsh, 12 British-American, 12 Irish and 16 German. The vote was 215 for Lincoln and 22 for Douglas. (The excess of votes over the number of family heads is not explained by Schafer.)

On the basis of his sampling and studies Schafer concludes that only one-sixth of the German voters in Wisconsin preferred Lincoln and not two-thirds as Hense-Jensen estimated. He believes that the same conclusions apply to the other neighboring states. However, he declares that until similar studies as those of Wisconsin are made for other states that no generalization can be drawn with complete confidence from the Wisconsin data, nor can his conclusion on Wisconsin be refuted. It seems evident to Schafer that Lincoln's election was due not to the determinative factor of the foreign-born, but to a moral upsurge on the part of distinctly American folk.

## THE KNIGHTS OF THE GOLDEN CIRCLE<sup>2</sup>

George W. L. Bickley founded the Knights of the Golden Circle sometime in 1859-1860. It was a military filibustering organization designed to annex Mexico to the United States. Born in Virginia in 1819, Bickley lived the life of an adventurer. At one time he was a physician and at another a professor at a medical school with no known medical training. He dabbled in literature writing a novel and founding a short-lived magazine, the *West American Review*. He also established at Baltimore about 1859 the filibustering newspaper, the *American Cavalier*. At this time he assumed the military title of "General," claiming West Point training and service in the Mexican and Crimean Wars of which there is no record.

The times were auspicious for filibustering schemes. Civil war was raging in Mexico between the conservatives and the liberals under Juarez. Buchanan was friendly with the latter having concluded a treaty with him which would have virtually made a protectorate out of Mexico if our Senate had ratified it. Responsible leaders and the southern press were enthusiastic about annexation. At this time Bickley issued his proclamations declaring it to be

<sup>1</sup> Joseph Schafer, "Who Elected Lincoln?" *American Historical Review*, XLVII (October 1941), 51-63.

<sup>2</sup> Ollinger Crenshaw, "The Knights of the Golden Circle," *American Historical Review*, XLVII (October 1941), 23-50.

the intent of his organization to seize Mexico. This would give the South more political power through the creation of more slave-controlled states, increase the economic opportunities in mining, manufacturing and shipping, offer openings for discontented politicians, and divert national attention away from sectional slavery controversy. If military conquest were not undertaken, still the organization would be of military value in the case of session.

Bickley's plans for the invasion of Mexico never materialized, evidently due to mismanagement. The organization was never powerful, though Bickley claimed 65,000 members in September, 1860 and 115,000 in November. With secession, the organization became the outright supporter of the war. There is no evidence as yet, to connect Bickley with the northern Knights of the Golden Circle. However, Congressman S. S. Cox of Cincinnati was in 1860

the Congressional spokesman for it.

During the war, Bickley served from January to June 1863 as a surgeon in General Bragg's army. In July 1863, after obtaining a pass through the Union lines to visit his erstwhile home in Cincinnati, he was kept under surveillance and shortly arrested as a spy. He was imprisoned until October 14, 1865. He died an uneventful death in August 1867.

Some publicity in the North as to the military purposes of the K.G.C. probably played some part in adding to sectional misunderstandings that brought on the war. While some papers were alarmed at his pre-war activities, others ridiculed him. Possibly Lincoln in rejecting the Crittenden Compromise was motivated by knowledge of the Mexican filibustering schemes. These would have been a constant possibility under the compromise. Lincoln probably wanted a definitive settlement.

## Teaching Citizenship for Defense and War

EGBERT LUBBERS

*Kemper Military School, Boonville, Missouri*

Among the consistently trite purposes of most citizenship courses one discovers that basic training in the art and practice of being a citizen ranks high. Precisely of what being "a good citizen" consists is not at all clear. To vote, to mind one's own business without arousing the antagonism of one's neighbors and associates, and to maintain the standard of living to which one's job and social status entitles him produces the flimsy sort of social approbation which is often mistaken for the marks of a good citizen. Much has been written about the responsibilities of citizenship; little has been done to make these effective from day to day in the lives of the people.

In a time of war and national emergency the teaching of citizenship, its responsibilities, and its practice must be re-vitalized and made effective by more than mere appeals and textbook techniques. Field trips to the local sanitation unit or county courts may be interesting and even informative, but do not enter into the mental framework of a student so as to become a part of his routine thinking. There is nothing habit-forming about such ventures. The habit of engaging in certain activities which may be characterized as essential to the creation of mature judgments and the moral capacity to act upon these judgments constitute the content and purpose of citizenship courses. The present war ought to energize whatever methods are available to develop these objectives.

Such textbooks as are available for classroom use

in citizenship courses emphasize the survey nature of such a course. It is assumed that citizenship ought to be a focal course which ties together all of the social sciences into a consistent and intelligible whole. Consequently the area of the course is staked off in accordance with the traditional subject-matter divisions of the social sciences—political sciences, sociology, economics, history, and the like. Four to six weeks are devoted to each division, and the summation is calculated as citizenship. This type of instruction may be traditional and satisfying in the more or less easy-going days of yesterday's world; in a day of war such instruction is a luxury which can be afforded only by those who intend to stick their heads in the sand.

Today's youth must be strengthened by a complete understanding of today's world, and the content of his instruction cannot come from yesterday's textbook, but must be derived from immediate contact with today's realities. The world of a week ago may be a different world tomorrow. Our young men and women are more confused than ever before by day-to-day events; the kind of principles that will guide their thinking must be extracted from day-to-day events. Since every event is immersed in social, political, economic, and historical implications, a citizenship course is indeed a survey course in the true and ultimate sense of the word. The focus of these subject-matter fields is the event; to make the event fit into any one of the social studies is to contort reality.



The most immediate contact with current reality is the daily newspaper. A good citizen is at least well-informed; it is notorious that many apparently solid "pillars of the community" are excruciatingly ignorant of day-to-day events. A social consciousness of their meaning is totally absent. Such people either do not read the newspaper or do not know how to read it intelligently. If a citizenship course teaches nothing except the conscientious and intelligent reading of the daily newspaper, it has accomplished one of the basic civic processes. Undoubtedly many citizenship courses fall amazingly short of this simple objective.

The necessity of taking a daily newspaper to class, of selecting its most important features, of reading and diligently studying the current problems that it presents, and of seeking to understand the social, political, economic, and historical implications involved in each one of these every day for a semester, or better still, for an entire year, does not require much transfer of training to make the habit directly effective in the lives of those subjected to the technique. If one seeks the survey aspect, it is effectively presented from immediate reality; if one demands experiential training for a specific purpose, it is one phase of citizenship in action; if one requires a method that will stir the students' interests, it is a technique that is pulsating with importance. And there are too many individuals whose knowledge of the geography and economics of the present conflict is incredibly deficient, and who need badly to become better informed.

The basic materials for the course would consist of the daily newspaper supplemented by the reading of one of the leading weekly news magazines. Besides the regular news columns daily assignments

should include feature articles by the leading columnists, editorials, and special map work. Above all, the student must be taught to read the financial reports and to understand the significance of various trends in the market. This is as much, or even perhaps more an economic war than one of military strategy; the necessity of price control, rationing, and the various means adopted for financing the war must enter into the mental picture that each student carries with him from day to day. Further, most newspapers contain excellent maps which, if rigidly followed, will teach the student geography as well as history. Events as they occur are freighted with historical significance. This type of course lends itself to either two or three hours both semesters on the junior college or college levels, or for the one-half unit of civics usually required of high school students. History or government courses are already strained by too much historical material to accomplish the objectives of citizenship as here outlined by the addition of a brief current affairs summary in class. That method fails to establish a habit, and likewise lacks the possibility of covering the materials adequately.

Perhaps the most elusive objective for such a course is to instill in the minds and emotions of our boys and girls, our young men and women a social consciousness of the impact that modern events make upon each one of them and of the mutual responsibility for social, economic, and political decisions and the events that result. If this be indoctrination, then make the most of it! Our standard of living, our government, our freedom, and our happiness stand or fall for all men in our national community. The student must be made to feel that the maintenance of each one of these is a personal responsibility.

## The Production of a Slide File<sup>1</sup>

MANNING EDWARD BLEICH

*Metropolitan Vocational High School, New York City*

It should be evident that if a competent process of selecting raw visual slide material for classroom use could be organized and introduced into the work of the classroom, it would materially improve the work. By raw visual slide material is meant the actual visual material, e.g., pictures, graphs, cartoons, isographs, etc., commonly found in such sources as newspapers, magazines, advertising posters, etc. The process of transmuting such raw material into visual

slide form, organizing it and using it effectively in the classroom is the subject of this paper.

It was with the thought of improving instruction in the Social Studies Department of the Metropolitan Vocation High School through visual aids, that the writer set about experimenting with slides for use in the social studies.

In a preliminary way, it is necessary to state that the process of reproducing such visual aid material may seem to conflict with the copyright law. However, it may be categorically stated that any and all good material may be freely used without infringing

<sup>1</sup> This paper is the result of a series of stimulating lectures by Professor Daniel C. Knowlton of the School of Education of New York University.

the copyright law provided the following requirements are met: (1) that the reproduction is restricted to classroom use only; (2) that it is not circulated for sale; and (3) that no restriction appears on the raw material against its use. It will be found that the great mass of usable material conforms to the above requirements. Due acknowledgment to the original source should be given as a matter of courtesy.

Briefly, the processes described here, encompass the following simple elements. The teacher while reading his newspaper, for instance, sees a cartoon which he would like to use for classroom instruction. By making use of various photographic techniques, the cartoon is transferred from one form into another until finally it emerges as a lantern slide. It is ready to be projected on the screen. It is then catalogued, indexed, cross-indexed and otherwise classified so that the fullest possible use may be made of it, either in single form or as a part of a series of slides.

Lack of material and physical facilities for the making of one's own slides are minor considerations compared to the joy of improving instruction. If the student can be stimulated to action, if he can be led to understand a difficult concept, if he can be inspired, if the past can live again, if his interpretive skill can be developed, if proper attitudes and the scientific method can be cultivated, and if a fine moral sense of truth, justice and honesty can be developed, then the obstacles to be overcome are insignificant compared to the results obtained.

Why should a teaching staff or individual member thereof go to the trouble and work of assembling material for slides, actually convert such material into slides and then keep a more or less complicated index for its efficient use? Compensation for this labor can come only from a realization that visual aid material meets a definite pupil need, that it stimulates learning at a faster and more complete rate than purely through textual material.

For illustrative purposes and in a preliminary way, perhaps it would be profitable to examine the actual conditions under which the germ of this idea sprouted and grew into bloom at the Metropolitan Vocational High School. At this school, instruction has to be carefully adapted to a wide variety of pupil reading range. No single textbook can give complete satisfaction in this respect. The exclusive use of textbook material simply did not accomplish the primary object; the lesson could not be understood and thoroughly digested. The texts, though good, were not good enough for this purpose. Visual aids in the texts were not sufficiently ample; they were widely scattered; of necessity they could not be immediately current. Even the use of several textbooks was found to be ineffective because such a procedure often resulted in confusion and the loss of a great deal of pupil time and teacher energy. The

problem therefore arose of presenting effective visual teaching material capable of enlisting student interest consistently and at all points and times, in a thoroughly interesting way and with a minimum of physical classroom routine.

Fortunately, the Metropolitan Vocational High School has one of the best basic courses of commercial photography. With the above ends in mind inquiry was made of students taking this course, with special reference to the techniques, physical equipments and materials available in that department for copying, developing and producing appropriate classroom slides to supplement textbook material.

The following equipment and materials were found to be available:

1. Double Extension Plate Back Camera
2. Photoflood Lamps
3. Lightmeter
4. Cut Films (twelve to a pack)
5. Developing and Fixing Solutions
6. Contact Printer
7.  $3\frac{1}{4} \times 4\frac{1}{4}$  Lantern Slide Plate
8.  $3\frac{1}{4} \times 4\frac{1}{4}$  Cover Glass
9. Binding Tape

Any school in which the above materials are to be had may follow the procedure for producing slides, without difficulty. Where such equipment and materials are not to be had, then arrangements can be made to perform part of the work outside the school, either through a regular photography establishment or through participation of pupils keenly interested in such work. Every high school has a great many such pupils.

The actual development of this idea and its fructification may be interesting to the reader as an example of how the answers to some questions are sometimes planned, sometimes stumbled upon and—provided there is the will—usually solved. The writer arranged for one of the students in the commercial photography courses to visit at his home and there the whole process of copying relevant teaching material was gone through. Only such material was selected as would be within the area toward which it was deemed desirable to direct the pupil's effort. The original material in this experiment was copied from the pictorial study unit called *Building America*, Vol. 3, No. 4, from which the following titles were copied:

1. School Housing Conditions
2. They Went to School
3. Higher Education Enrollment
4. Part Time and Evening Enrollment
5. Costs for School Services per Day per Child
6. United States School Population 1936

(Continued on page 123)

# ILLUSTRATED SECTION

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*Edited by DANIEL C. KNOWLTON  
New York University*

## EUROPE IN AFRICA



### “MOSE IN EGITTO!!!”

“Mosé in Egitto” appeared in *Punch* December 11, 1875, as the result of Disraeli's purchase in November from the Khedive of Egypt of 176,602 shares of stock of the Suez Canal which gave the English government a controlling interest. The purchase price was £4,000,000. In 1872, of the 1082 vessels using the canal, 762 flew the English flag. By this act England not only increased her influence in Africa and the Near East but also safeguarded her route to India and the Far East.



## EUROPE IN AFRICA

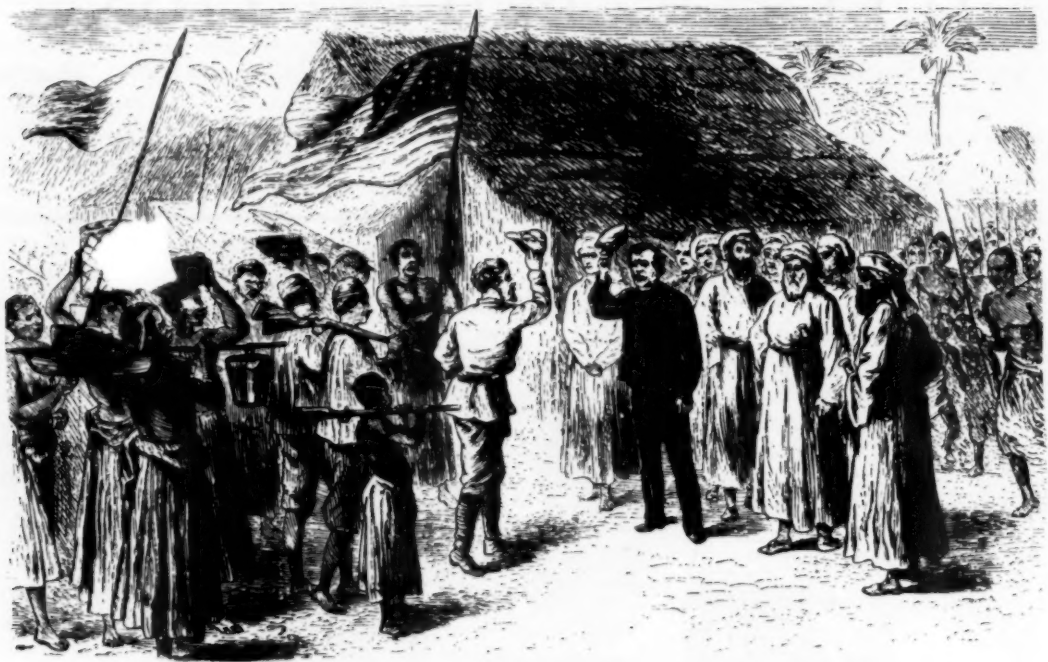


Illustration from Henry M. Stanley's *How I Found Livingstone* (1872.) The picture is an accurate portrayal of the scene as Stanley describes it. It represents the climax of a quest begun in 1869 when James Gordon Bennett, proprietor of the *New York Herald* commissioned Stanley "to do what you think best—but find Livingstone! . . . Go into the interior and find him, if alive. Get what news of his discoveries you can; and, if you find he is dead, bring all possible proofs of his being dead."

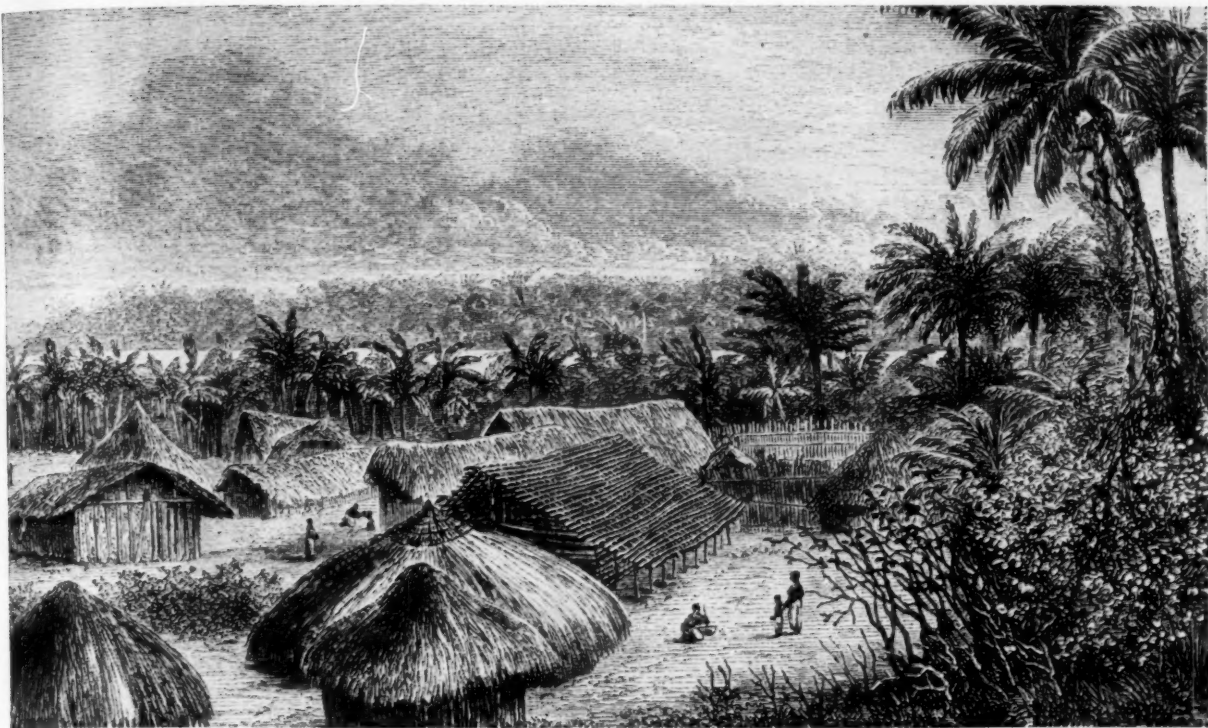


THE RHODES COLOSSUS  
STRIDING FROM CAPE TOWN TO CAIRO.

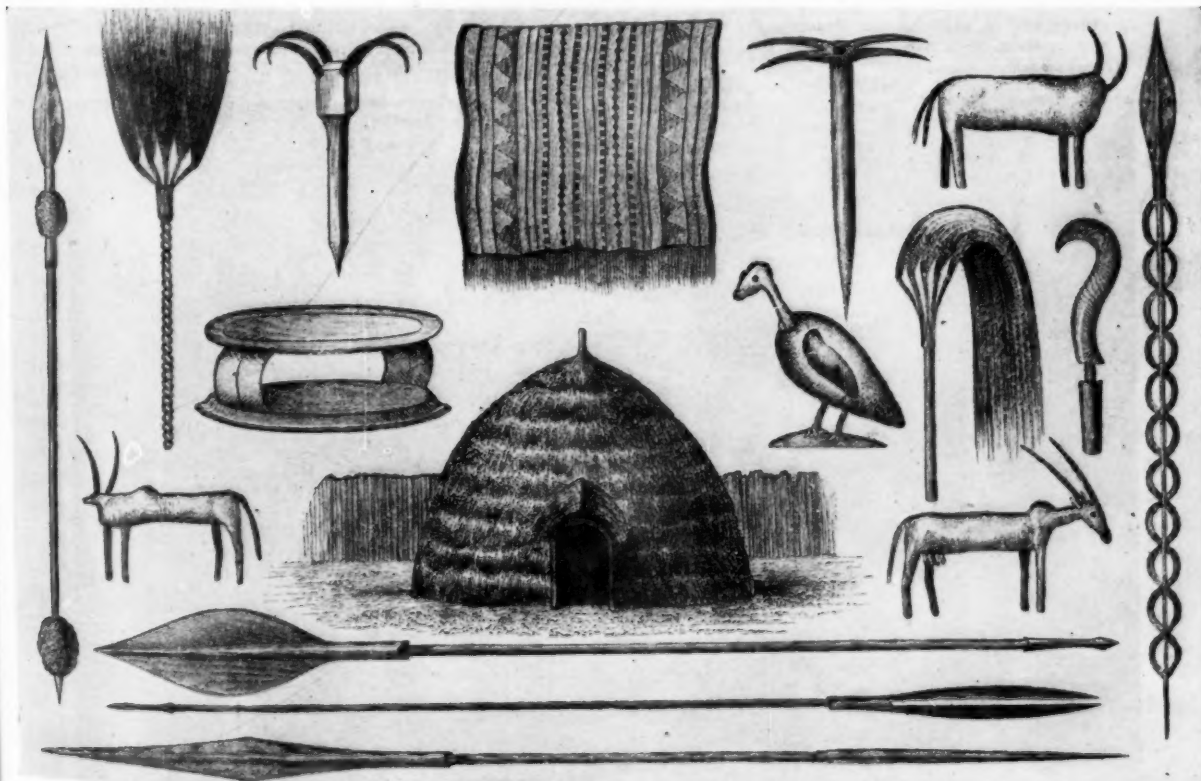
This cartoon appearing in *Punch* on December 10, 1892, is indicative of the power wielded by Cecil Rhodes (b. 1853, d. 1902.) As head of the diamond industry in Kimberley, attained as a result of the consolidation of the various companies, and as founder of the British South Africa Company, he was the richest man in Africa. He was also the most dangerous foe of the Boers. Ambitious for the extension of British influence throughout the continent of Africa, he sought to link the possessions in South Africa with British East Africa and the Sudan. He envisioned a giant railroad through English-controlled territory extending from the Cape of Good Hope to Cairo.



## EUROPE IN AFRICA

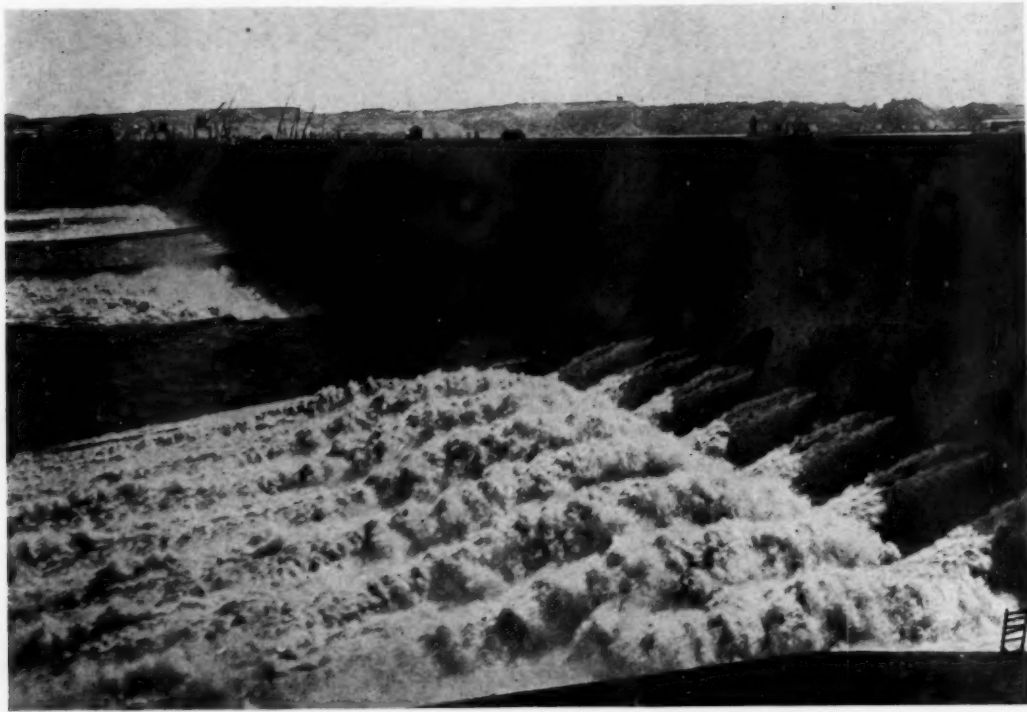


This view of Ujiji, on Lake Tanganyika (in background) where Stanley found Livingstone, is from a photograph which Stanley describes as taken "north from my tembé, which fronted the market-place."



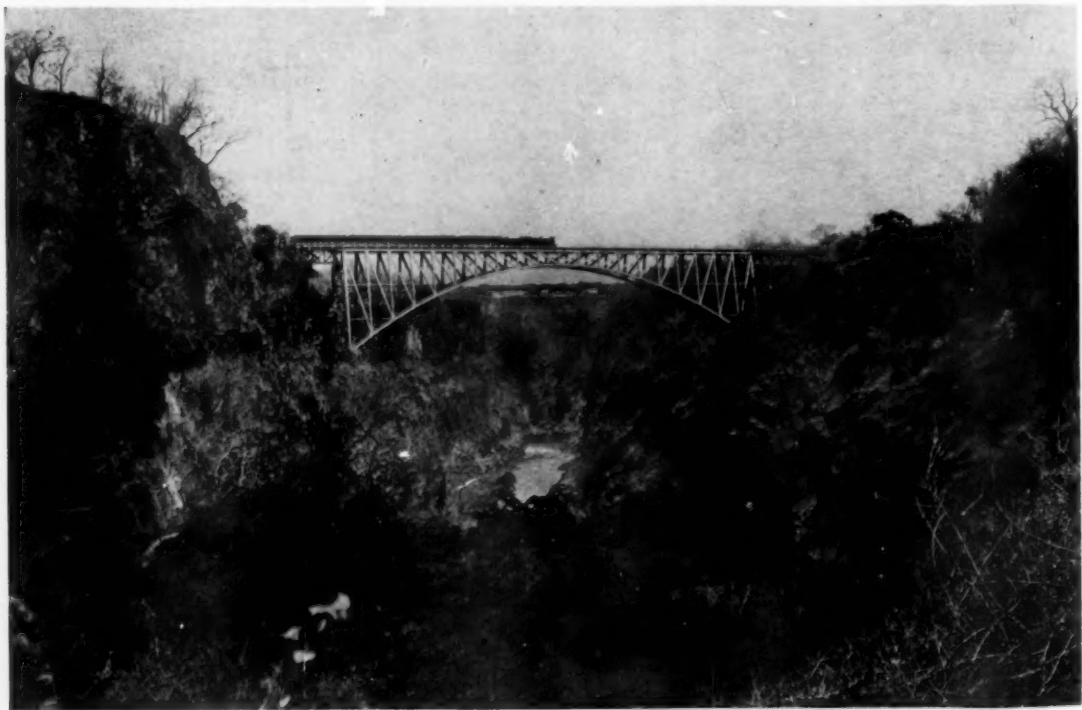
The treasure house (or armory), arms, and treasures of Rumanika King of Karagive whom Stanley visited in 1876. (From Volume I, *Through the Dark Continent* p. 475.) These treasures he describes as "rude brass figures of ducks with copper wings . . . ten curious things of the same metal . . . meant to represent elands and ten headless cows of copper, bill hooks of iron . . . exquisite spears . . . great fly-flaps set in iron . . . cleaver-looking knives . . . a kedge-anchor-shaped article with four iron prongs projecting out of a brass body . . . some exquisite native cloths, manufactured of delicate grass . . . so fine as to vie with cotton sheeting, coloured black and red, in patterns and stripes . . . and a royal stool . . . carved out of a solid log of cottonwood." The treasure-house also contained a revolving rifle, treasured gift of Captain Speke.

## EUROPE IN AFRICA



*Copyright Ewing Galloway, N.Y.*

The Assuan Dam built between 1898 and 1902. This stretches across the Nile three miles above the town of Assuan. It is designed to control the overflow of the river. This great engineering work marked the culmination of a series of efforts begun as early as 1833. The Rosetta Branch Barrage was finished in the winter and spring of 1886-87, the eastern half in 1888-89; the Damietta Branch Barrage was completed by 1890. "The splendid irrigation system which now produces such rich crops on the banks of the Nile and in the delta is almost entirely the result of the British occupation."



*Copyright Underwood and Underwood, N.Y.*

Railroad Bridge across the Zambesi at Victoria, Rhodesia, South Africa. This is one of the great engineering works associated with the Cape to Cairo Railroad which was conceived by Cecil Rhodes. It is one of the tallest railway bridges in the world (453 feet high) above the gorge of the Zambesi River only a short distance from Victoria Falls. These falls, 280 miles from Bulawayo and between 1500 and 1600 miles from Cape Town, were discovered by Livingstone.

### 7. The Five Most Popular Discussion Topics Last Year

The copying was done in the following manner. The material (map, picture, isograph) to be copied was placed on an easel. Two number 1 photoflood lamps were arranged in such a position that the image would be evenly illuminated. This can be done simply by placing one photoflood lamp in a reflector on each side of the picture to be copied, far enough to the side to avoid reflections.

A reading from a lightmeter was then taken. The lens stop and the speed of the shutter of the camera was adjusted accordingly. The material selected was then copied by the student and the writer. The films were developed and printed in the Metropolitan Vocational High School laboratories. At this point, seven negatives and seven prints were available. The next step was to purchase lantern slide plates. A contact printer was borrowed from the Commercial Photography Department, and from this point on the process proceeded under its own steam and without further assistance from the Commercial Photography Department.

The emulsion side of the negative was taken and contacted with the emulsion side of the lantern slide plate (number of seconds exposure depended on test plate and on density of negative). The glass slide was then placed in the developer for three seconds, washed, fixed, dried, and bound. This completed the entire process. The total cost was eight cents per slide.

At a conference held on Monday, May 26, 1941, with the entire Social Studies Department (eleven teachers) of the Metropolitan Vocational High School, the whole process of copying instructional material was discussed and demonstrated. Present at this conference were two members of the Commercial Photography Department who explained the technical elements involved.

Of course, the question arose as to whether the teacher was expected to go through all of the processes for the final production of a slide to be used as a visual aid. At this point, full clarification was attempted. It was explained that all the teacher was expected to do was to send the instructional raw material (i.e. the material desired to be copied) to the chairman of the department. It was emphasized that selection and choice of this material required thought and care on the question of use. In the final analysis was the slide to be used for motivation? Was it to be used to raise a problem? Was it to be used for review purposes? Was it to be used to serve as a summary?

Having selected the instructional raw material with thought and care, and having sent this material on to the chairman of his department, the teacher's

function was ended, until the finished slide came back to him ready for classroom use.

The Social Studies Department of Metropolitan Vocational High School is thrice blessed. In the first place, the school has a Commercial Photography Department with full facilities. Secondly, that department has a faculty that is ready and willing to cooperate at all times. Thirdly, the student who taught the chairman of the Social Studies Department the whole process of making a slide, agreed to undertake any and all jobs given to him, connected with photography. Fortunately, he happens to be on the payroll of the National Youth Administration.

This combination of conditions offered a rare opportunity for the making of a "Live File" of slides. The teacher sends in his order: the picture, the graph, the cartoon, the table, the map to be copied. A slide is made in accordance with the order. The finished slide is sent to the teacher. When the teacher has used it, he returns it to the chairman.

It will be found that when the process of producing slides has gone on for even one month, the number of slides already at hand will compel attention to the problem of classification. For example, at the end of this period of time slides on the following subjects may become available:

1. Housing
2. Food
3. Men and Machines
4. Our Constitution
5. Safety
6. Social Security
7. Aviation
8. Labor
9. Our Latin American Neighbors
10. Education
11. Ships and Men
12. Chemistry at Work
13. Conservation
14. Movies
15. Crime

At this point, the possibility begins of enriching the courses of study for the different terms of the social studies. For example, as files are built up on the various topics, a teacher in term 1, teaching civics and about to cover the content area "Housing" will consult the corresponding file in the chairman's office. It must be emphasized here that the building up of such a file presupposes a social studies faculty alive to the value and effective use of visual material. Assuming that teachers agree on the value, attention should then be directed to effective use of slides in the classroom.

Fundamentally, the use of the slide calls for expert handling and it remains for the chairman to teach its proper use. At all times the pupil becomes



the dominant factor when a slide is presented for his interpretation. As Dr. Knowlton states: "It calls for an expert handling of the medium in such a way that the pupil draws from it, in his own way, and in that sequence peculiar to his own individuality, the content or ideas incorporated in the medium."<sup>2</sup>

The fruit of this aim towards the improvement of instruction must lie in the realization by the teacher of the social studies that a real opportunity is being offered to him. His work is eased because he is presented with a powerful and highly interesting tool of instruction. It remains for him to participate and to cooperate fully. Will he take advantage of what-

<sup>2</sup> "Some Fundamental Considerations for the Effective Classroom Use of Visual and Auditory Aids."

ever facilities are available in his school? No doubt there are difficulties to be overcome, chiefly in the matter of physical equipment. Not every school has at hand a fully equipped Photography Department ready to cooperate. Each school, however, does have at hand some equipment and some material with which a beginning can be made.

It is surprising how much assistance will be forthcoming from interested pupils and teachers. It will be the work of the chairman to stimulate, organize and coordinate this whole idea into a real functioning program. Mr. O'Toole of the Guidance Division of the Board of Education, New York City, has expressed it well, when he said: "The outcome will exceed by far the expectation under the aim."

## Status of Sociology in High Schools

T. EARL SULLENGER

*Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska*

There is a growing need for the study of sociology in the secondary schools. This need serves as a real challenge to all sociologists. It is being generally recognized that sociology should become an integral part of our public education system and a definite part of every-day life. We need to make the high school student socially conscious—conscious of his part in society. Desirable social attitudes and philosophies of life are important for every individual. The proper place to start these is in our high schools. There is great need for a course that will give students an insight into how social experiences are consistently related. This is especially true in the age in which we live. A small percentage of the recognized high schools maintain worth-while classes definitely in sociology. The subject is sometimes made an important part of the course in social studies in secondary schools, or is one of the major divisions of a course in modern problems or social science.

The challenge of the present high school curriculum is to visualize the boys and girls in today's classrooms as fundamental members of society. The coveted goal of the educator is a correlation of the individual student's ability and environment as they are affected by his emotional reactions in relationship to his particular difficulties and his likes and dislikes. Any student who is placed in the environment of living his work, and feeling that he is an integral part of it will have a greater eagerness to do his work well and play his part more efficiently in the great drama of life.

Some one has well pointed out that our changing

world is seeking a reinterpretation of life values. The scattered mosaic of efficient citizenship must be reassembled by skillful hands and patient understanding minds. When we can define wealth in terms of well rounded personalities reflecting poise, grace, charm, and sincerity; honest business; faithful service; dignity of labor; loyalty to the royal within the individual, we can then appreciate the significance of an adequately planned program of social science. When we can eliminate from society the power of money as an ideal, we can re-evaluate success as the possible achievement of power to stop fretting over things that can't be done or helped, and do those things that can be done. This is a worthy ideal to establish. It behooves our educational system to set up courses that will make an approach to this ideal possible. The human element in preparing students to make a living and to live a life must not be overlooked.

It is not surprising that the past few years have brought about important developments in the field of high school sociology. Introduced at first only by larger schools and even there rather hesitantly, it has grown in popularity until its inclusion in the curriculum is increasing and it is beginning to rank with many other of the older high school subjects. So far high school sociology has not suffered so extensively as have the other social studies from the inclusion of "high brow theory" but deals with real social living.

In order to get a cross-section of the status of sociology in our secondary schools in the middle west, a questionnaire was sent to some 200 average

sized public high school systems. Many replied that they offered no course strictly in sociology or social problems. Others ignored the questions, but a fair sample of complete replies was received. After the usual elimination we had forty-five replies that were really valuable and threw some light on our problem. These were representative of our region. The results were interesting from the standpoint both of the findings and of the comments obtained from the instructors.

From this study we note certain trends. For instance, there is a definite trend toward the recognition of the importance of social research, and also in making the social studies a core around which to build the secondary-school curriculum. Ninety-eight per cent of the schools that responded to our questionnaire offered a course either in sociology as such or in modern social problems. In both cases the contents of the course were approximately the same. Most of these schools offered their courses to seniors; a small number to juniors. No courses were found that were open to freshmen or sophomores. This indicates a trend toward building a stronger practical course which is used as a citizenship training course for the high school. Since only a small fraction of high school graduates attend college, emphasis on sociology in the upper grades of high school is very important.

In answering the question concerning the use of textbooks, it was found that ninety-nine per cent of the schools used some type of text, although practically all expressed the regret that they had found none in this field absolutely satisfactory for high-school needs. Among the various texts, *Our Changing Social Order* by Garwin, Gray, and Groves, was the most popular, although less than one-fourth of the schools were using it. The trend is toward the use of current materials and the making of local-community studies, with little stress on the textbook. This is perhaps due, in part, to the lack of a satisfactory text that presents the study as it is needed in the high school field. Other texts used by fewer schools were Ellwood's *Social Problems*, Ross's *Civic Sociology*, Landis's *Social Living*, Towne's *Social Problems*, and Finney and Mills, *Elementary Sociology*.

Looking into the use of supplementary material as a means of building the course in sociology, we note a wide variation from college texts to periodicals. Source books, government materials, newspapers, reports of social researches and various materials gathered from every source possible were used. It seems that the teachers in this field are on the lookout for materials with which to build a course that will give their students something that will be of use to them in their life careers.

As to methods of presentation of the subject

matter, the stress is now being placed on projects, supplemented by class discussions. Emphasis is placed on knowing one's own community. The lecture method is sometimes used but not frequently in comparison with the two former types. This is a good indication that the high schools are aware of the fact that in order to present effectively the problems of social welfare, one must present them in their natural settings and attack them from the practical point of view.

One high school instructor reported as follows concerning method of presentation:

A visit by some of the class to traffic courts and interviews with traffic officers make pupils concretely aware of the need for strict enforcement of traffic laws, the proper maintenance of traffic arteries, and well planned highway construction. Traffic hazards in the city, such as blind corners and railway crossings, were illustrated in the classroom by blackboard drawings. This was followed by research into records concerning the number of serious accidents and deaths which had occurred at the points in question. The crying need for safety education to check the mounting toll of pain, death and waste became evident even to the listless and disinterested pupils.

The wide contacts made by the pupils, while working on their projects, bring them in contact with first hand information about the operation of old age benefits, old age pensions, unemployment insurance, and workman's compensation laws. Pupils observe that the battle against disease, premature death, pain, poverty, unemployment, and class hostility is a common cause; that the problems of the community are those of all humanity. A beginning is made in arousing the social imagination into a visualization that our problems are world-wide and deep-seated, and that social relations are an evil from which none escape.

Through helping in community projects students learn to assume the responsibility of carrying their purposes to a successful conclusion. They develop new techniques, and new talents.

The fundamental objective of sociology instruction is the development of interest in, and of proper attitudes concerning significant social institutions and problems. One teacher stressed the importance of an exhaustive bibliography of topics of interest to students in the field. This should contain the most recent books and periodical literature on subjects of general discussion. They can be grouped around the basic units or division of the course.

In the preparation required of the students, we note a wide variety of practices. The majority of the

schools require a study of the text and reports on readings, class-group projects, written investigations and committee reports on certain community projects. It is interesting to find in this part of the study that the trend is to give the pupils an opportunity to draw personal conclusions in regard to the application of the principles learned in their studies.

The plan upon which the course is based reveals a trend toward the use of units. Ninety per cent of the high schools reporting are using the unit plan, varying from eighteen units for one year of study to five units for one half year. The mean is eight units for one semester of study. In fact ninety-six per cent of the schools offer it only one half year, or one semester, and these center their units around the major problems of general sociology.

In planning for this study it was anticipated that the problem of an efficient textbook would be clearly recognized by teachers of sociology on the high school level and the question; "List what you think should be included in a good textbook for this class," brought a host of good suggestions that not only revealed the correctness of the assumption but brought out very valuable points that should lead to the production of a text to meet the challenge. The demand is for a book that is based on five or six units, that outlines definite procedures, furnishes a bibliography of readings and offers problems that can be adjusted to the local needs of any community. Teachers also want a syllabus to accompany the text that will allow for local adjustments and individual work as well as optional choices in various studies in the field of social problems. This book should be adapted to the twelfth-grade level and offer a year of work. It should be a study of fundamentals of sociology, with stress on relationships, especially as they concern the home, the community and the historical background.

One high school teacher replied that a good high school text in sociology should be about five to ten texts in one. In other words a general integration of the social sciences in terms of sociology, which should be made the basis of all.

As to organization of the course the following letter from one sociology high school teacher is typical of many replies received.

Most texts seem too impractical. They spend too much time on inconsequential material, making mountains of mole-hills and making too minute distinctions between terms. Most texts divide the subject rather than integrate it. I like a text which integrates economics and government. Even now, I develop the course by finding several outstanding social problems and then showing the causes, effects and results, with economic and political ramifications . . .

then try to connect all problems which are in any way related. I would like a text written from this problem angle.

I use units frequently, though some work actually divided into units is not definitely labeled as such. In units, I find I need more recitation and must take plenty of time. Then too, students have a tendency to divide or separate causes, etc., rather than bring the work together. Sometimes unit work furthers that difficulty.

We accent certain personal and local problems which are somewhat universal. We always try to show how the problem exists in our community. We use no workbook, but do use a great deal of outside material, from references, book reports, government reports, etc.

I try to introduce a little vocational guidance work into the sociology course, since no other class deals much with the problem. It can fit in rather nicely. This year, we tried about every method of approach or method. I lectured sometimes, students led discussions and gave reports, they wrote papers and debated certain questions. We also had panels, quizzes, unit work and term papers. The thing that stands out seems to be "take your time."

The type of problems and supplementary material used by many, places emphasis on vocational guidance as a part of the basic course. Magazines which stress such topics as occupations, broken homes and other social problems, etc., are suggested as supplementary materials to augment the materials outlined. We found that in many places high school students are being trained in the use of standard forms of community research. Surveys, life histories and rating scales take the activities beneath the externals of life and provide data for local action and social planning. Community life reaches backward in time and outward in space. These become challenges to the adolescent mind. A well planned course in high school sociology aims at an understanding of the nature and trends of a specific social influence in time and space, its effects on pupil attitudes and behavior and a broader and fuller outlook on life in general.

We were surprised to find that practically no high schools are now using any of the many workbooks available for the social-problems class; yet they are asking for a workbook or syllabus to accompany the new text. Apparently the available workbooks fail to meet the current needs.

The fact that fifty per cent of the instructors now teaching the courses in sociology or social problems hold degrees in their subjects is encouraging. With this type of personnel, we may feel confident that the future holds gratifying possibilities for the study



of sociology and that the subject will find its right place in the curriculum of the modern high school.

The final question was an appeal to the reaction of the instructors in regard to the course now being offered in the modern high schools. This revealed much constructive criticisms as follows: The course should be less scientific and more realistic; less emphasis on social pathology; more definiteness and fewer intangibles; more thoroughness with less emphasis on coverage; less emphasis on the formalistic approach with more stress on every-day problems of the students. These criticisms serve as suggestions for the requirements of a new textbook and what should be emphasized in the construction and content of a newly planned course of study for sociology in the high schools. The information obtained from this brief study indicates that our secondary school leaders are awakening to the need for this type of study in our high schools, and also to the fact that we are confronted with a serious problem of meeting the challenge of high school instructors for classroom tools that will meet their needs.

Any plan of presenting sociology to high school pupils must be flexible enough to meet the need and material of any community. Its success will depend very much on the personality, ingenuity and background of the individual teachers. We must translate these factors into understandable terms and learning situations for the student. He should be encouraged to help in guiding his own learning as well as to follow our guidance. A major aim is to organize teaching material to show relationships rather than to stress innumerable unrelated facts. Less emphasis should be placed on speed in digesting the subject matter and going through motions of educational activity. More emphasis should be placed on developing individual or group methods of studying and sampling characteristic areas of society. Let us help the students help themselves. Then, and not until then, can sociology be a great aid to those who will go no further than through high school, in learning how to live more abundantly, and it will also serve as a feeder for our college and university sociology classes.

## Unrolling the Map in American History

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Historical geography is an important element in all history teaching. In the elementary school where most of the geography instruction is given, little attention is paid to the historical aspects of the subject. One reason for this neglect is that geography teachers frequently are not history teachers. But a more important reason is that the time allotted for geography instruction is usually so short that it is hardly adequate for the teaching of the political and economic phases of the subject necessary to an understanding of American development.

Opinions differ as to what specific geographical information is needed by history students. I have found map-making an interesting and profitable classroom activity, but a responsibility which the teacher must see through. Pupils always enjoy the "map days" and I am amazed at the interest taken in the map work and the skill and originality shown by the pupils who do not do so well with the academic requirements of the course. While it is true a map may be so crowded and complicated that it may lose all value, under careful instruction and supervision this can be guarded against and the map may become a profitable aspect of historical study.

The map when completed should be evaluated and

given a definite place and value in the grading scheme. This should be explained to the student at the outset in order that he may know that his final credit for the history course may be improved if his required map is correctly and artistically done. I have learned that there is no teacher's method that pupils in the secondary schools appreciate or desire more than definiteness, particularly in the directions given for class-room activities and in the promised reward for their efforts. Especially is this true of map-making exercises.

In the course in American history one map is required and one is optional. Four and sometimes five days are given in the classroom to create a map which, when finished, will present a complete and detailed story of the rounding out of the continental borders of the United States. Since only a limited amount of time can be spared from the textbook work for the map work, care must be taken in selecting the time for each "map day." This care in the matter of time is necessary for at least two reasons: first, so that the map material will be intelligible to the students because the textbook facts have already been taught, thereby making map work both supplementary and review; and second so that

there will be enough "map facts" available to the student, thereby allowing every minute of the map period to be used. From my experience I have found that the best time for the first map exercises comes just after the study of the American Revolution has been completed. Outline maps of the United States without physical features are distributed and boxes of colored crayons (borrowed from the art department) are placed on the desk for the use of the pupils. Frequently pupils prefer to bring their own colors. It is on this first day that the element of definiteness must not be neglected by the teacher. Most necessary instruction includes that concerning the putting on of color; the printing of names and dates; the use of source and textbook maps; and most important of all, judgment in the use of all available space on the map so as to prevent crowding. On this first day the thirteen original colonies are colored, one color being used for the royal, one for the proprietary, and one for the self-governing. The date of 1775 is used for determining the political status of the colonies. Philadelphia, New York, Saratoga, Jamestown, Boston, Vincennes, and Williamsburg are indicated. Also the charter lines of the London Company of 1606 and 1609 are shown. These will prove helpful later in discussing the conflicting claims of the colonies which result in the acquiring of the Northwest Territory, our first national domain. The area beyond the colonies as far as the Mississippi River is shaded to indicate the original area as determined by the 1783 treaty. The northern boundary between the United States and Canada is indicated—the part definitely settled by the 1783 treaty as well as the portion disputed until 1842. This point presents an excellent opportunity for the use of source material, an important phase of historical study frequently neglected in the secondary school.

The second map day comes after the study of the administration of Monroe when Louisiana and Florida have been acquired and the western and northern boundaries of Louisiana Purchase definitely fixed through the diplomacy of John Quincy Adams in 1818. Also the route taken by Lewis and Clark may be indicated at this time as well as the admission dates of the states up to 1820.

The third map day comes just prior to the teaching of the Civil War and after the annexation of Texas. The Mexican Cession and the Gadsden Purchase are indicated. The name, date, method of acquisition (purchase, conquest, annexation, or treaty), and the name of one American connected with the history of the acquisition is carefully printed on each piece of territory. On the last day, the adjustment of the disputed Maine-Canadian line by the Webster-Ashburton treaty and the continuance of the 49th parallel to the Pacific by the 1846 treaty are indicated.

Also admission dates of the states entering the Union from 1820 to 1860 are printed in. The data printed on the map must be so regulated by color, size, etc. that it will not be confusing and the map will readily "talk."

After these days of supervision and instruction on the making of the first and required map I have little trouble getting the students to complete the map program at home as no more time can be spared from the textbook work of the classroom. Two additional maps are assigned for optional work in order to secure extra credit. This gives ambitious students an opportunity to raise their grades, and so is a useful adjunct to the regular program. One of these suggested maps is a world outline map on which our possessions are shown. In as much as our island possessions are now front page news this map exercise is of current historical importance. At one time the island protectorates of the United States would be indicated in one color and island possessions in another, but this is no longer appropriate. I urge the selection of this map for map credit as it completes the story of expansion started on the map done in class. Another suggested map is one of the Civil War, indicating slave, union, and seceded states. Admission dates for all of the forty-eight states may be placed on this map. Also the routes of the Union Pacific Railroad, the Erie Canal, the line of the Missouri Compromise or any other data of historical importance may be included. A great deal of history can be easily read from the map and the pupil has before him one of the great stories of American history—that of westward expansion.

After the completion of the maps comes the grading, for pupils in these days clamor for tangible rewards. Grading is not easy, but I have found the following plan workable, speedy, and definite. I promise five possible marks: M for satisfactory, or up the scale to M+ or M++ or down the scale to M— or M==. To achieve the best grading a map must be complete, correct, and artistic, with the printing of detail so carefully done as to present no difficulty in interpreting or using the map for historic information.

Of course in this method of approach there are obstacles and limitations as in every method used in historical study. When the maps available for distribution to the students are small in size or poor in quality of paper, students do not care to work with them. Maps under twelve by fifteen inches are not desirable as it is both difficult to determine areas and necessary to crowd the data which is printed on the map.

The problem of the student who has been absent for part of the map period is usually met by allowing those who missed work to see the teacher after school for help in completing the map.

After spending so much time on the map it seems necessary that the material be used for part of the testing program so I administer a printed sheet of questions or a completion test based entirely on the data found on the map. This may be used as a learning or testing procedure and the questions may be

answered with or without the map before the student. When the map is used the test serves as a drill for fixing the facts in memory. Then, too, students are warned that a possible theme question for the final semester examination could be "Fixing the Boundaries of our Country."

## Juan Fernandez: Robinson Crusoe Island

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Juan Fernandez lies in the latitude of thirty four degrees, some four hundred miles west of Valparaiso, Chile. This island, which is only thirteen miles long by four miles wide, is the largest of a group of isles which bear the the same name. Today it is just one of those thousands of islets, dotting the mighty Pacific Ocean, which has potential value as an aerial base, while yesterday it basked in a glory and splendor all its own.<sup>1</sup>

Its existence first became known to the modern European world in 1563 when the intrepid Spanish navigator, Juan Fernandez, sighted it. Some seven years later, through a grant from the crown of Spain, he tried to establish upon it the colony of *Isla Mas a Tierra* or *Masafuera*. The settlers soon abandoned this enterprise, leaving behind some goats whose progeny furnished food for Alexander Selkirk who was the prototype for Robinson Crusoe.<sup>2</sup>

Selkirk, or Selcraig as he was sometimes called, was a Scotch sailor who, in 1703, joined the English buccaneer, William Dampier, on a government commissioned voyage to the South Seas. At Juan Fernandez Island, Selkirk had a dispute with his captain. As a result he was marooned there for four years and four months.<sup>3</sup>

In 1719, the English author, Daniel Defoe, wrote his immortal story of *Robinson Crusoe* based upon his exile there.<sup>4</sup> This work, which has been translated

and printed in almost every language, has delighted not only with the tale of Robinson Crusoe and his good man, Friday, but also with the beauty and fertility of the *locale* of the narrative. Fascinated by this in the middle of the nineteenth century, a Forty-Niner wrote of this isle in his Journal in these words:

In the course of the day we had two or three very heavy rain squalls. Was followed by a large school of black fish. At two o'clock we made the Island of Juan Fernandez and the Captain leaving it optional with the passengers whether or not they stop at this Island and water or pursue our course we held a meeting and it was voted unanimously to stop at this place. In compliance with this vote we ran down under the lee of the Island and have to wait daylight. Everyone is in spirits at the prospect of setting forth on the island of the far famed Robinson Crusoe. . . .

In the morning brig close under land, ran in for the Bay or watering Place and came to anchor about eight o'clock when within about a mile of the shore; we were boarded by a live Yankee from the State of Maine who gave us directions to the landing place. This Yankee has been on the Island about two years and is now making his fortune in freighting the passengers of the California ships on shore. This island is about fifteen miles in length. The bay is formed like a bow of a boat two miles in length and three quarters of a mile in depth, and is a good harbor to any winds but from the N.W. to N.E. As soon as our anchor got fairly down we were on our way to the shore, gun in hand and knapsack on our back all ripe for adventures. When the boat touched the shore, we were on the sand, and shaking hands with an ancient grey headed Chilean that we might easily have fancied Robinson Crusoe himself, though there were a few years intervening between his and the present time. From the Yankee we soon learned that there were at present eight men and four women on the Island besides a goodly number of

<sup>1</sup>Peter Corney, *Voyages in the Northern Pacific* (Honolulu, H.I.: T. G. Thrum, 1896), p. 94, Henry E. Huntington Library 741; Charles Marion Tyler, *The Island World of the Pacific Ocean* (San Francisco: Howard and Pariser, 1885), pp. 24-26, Henry E. Huntington Library, 1963.

<sup>2</sup>Charles Marion Tyler, *The Island World of the Pacific Ocean*, pp. 24-26; 310-311; Richard Jeffry Cleveland, *A Narrative of Voyages and Commercial Enterprises* (Cambridge, Mass.: J. Owens, 1842), II, 136; Henry E. Huntington Library 33679; "Juan Fernandez," *The Encyclopedia Britannica* (Eleventh edition, 1910), X, 279.

<sup>3</sup>"William Dampier," *Ibid.*, VII, 790-791; "Alexander Selkirk," *Ibid.*, XXIV, 611.

<sup>4</sup>"Daniel Defoe," *Encyclopedia Britannica*, VII, 927; Daniel Defoe, *The Life and Adventures of Robinson Crusoe* (Philadelphia: David McKay), pp. xxiv, 119, 219.



dark eyed chips, so sweet that we could not help tempting them to our side with a biscute and then kissing them; which when accompanied by a cracker they were not adverse to.

These few families lived in grass houses, but on what, one could not possibly tell from observation for although the soil about these miserable huts was of the richest and would produce all the fruites of the tropics, Indian corn, wheat, rye, oats and potatoes there was not a foot of cultivated ground about them; and this and other things instantly confirmed our first suspicions that they were ever indolent and lazy brood. About these huts was a host piece of ground cut into many patches by grooves of babbling brooks, bordering the bay of about ten acres, which was entirely covered with a rank growth of wild turnips and an herb of the most fragrant kind, at which all took a large bunch of to make tea on board; and the odor that arises between decks is really refreshing, go where you will in the ravine, on the mountain, thousands put in sight and your feet crushes the sweet smelling sock which seems to invigorate every limb of the body. Bordering this back space and rising to the height of two and three thousand feet . . . are mountains, whose peaks are worn smooth by the constant traveling of the wild goat, which abounds all over the Island.

As soon as we looked about us we left the mob and started for the mountains and after climbing for about two hours we gained the summit of one of the highest peaks, the view from which was the most grand we ever witnessed. The Bay and beach below presented a grand panorama of green and blue sky interrupted by many brooks that leaped from cliff to cliff, foaming and dashing on in . . . cataracts, now rushing through a dark and gloomy ravine and then appearing again at the shore into the deep blue and were lost to view; after saturating our eyes with this view we again commenced the decent and after various falls we arrived safely at the foot of the mountain and beside one of the brooks before mentioned, when it commenced raining. But being nothing daunted by this, we peeled our bread and keep from our pouch, and lay it on a rock and stepping a few steps aside and citing a lone leaf of the Rubarb species, which was of ample size to cover us, we held it over our head, and composed ourselves to our dinner. Now taking a bit of bread, then a cut sprig of a herb, and there placing the end of a abastras swig borne into the brook, we sipped the pure water at intervals—And this was our first meal on the Island of Juan Fernandez.

After our dinner it being clear again we sauntered lazily towards the ship shooting a pigeon and an owl or two on our way. But we must not

forget to mention that we saw a herd of wild horses, among which were some of the most beautiful colts we ever saw. They allowed us to come very near to them. So near that we could see their bright flashing eyes and the symmetry of their beautiful limbs. When they had become quite satisfied with their observation, they stamped their feet, curved their graceful necks, snorted, and then erected long tails and mains dashed away causing the tramp of their feet to echo in the far off mountains. And we saw also a drove of asses winding in single file around the side of an almost perpendicular cliff, like so many wooden, even sleeping, animals in a Diorannia. When we again arrived at the landing it was nearly dark and some of the crew were hurrying on board while a portion of them were making preparations for spending the night in the Convicts' caves, dug from the solid rock in the cliffs bordering the Bay.

And now let me say that the Chilean Government sometime ago used this Island as a refuge for convicts at which time it was quite a flourishing place to what it is now. They built a large Fort, a number of frame houses and dug the underground caverns before mentioned for the convicts and layed out little streets or avenues bordering the Bay and paved them; the remains of all of which are still to be seen, tho' almost passed into oblivion. The walls of the fort are grown over with weeds and about it here and there lay old rusty guns, long ago dismounted and half buried within the ground. This project of the Chileans was an entire failure, for after having got about 250 convicts on the Island, and not leaving sufficient guard to manage them, they arose in a mass, drove their keepers to two convict ships laying in the Bay, took charge of the boat, and after bombarding the ships for two days, which was returned with interest, the ships departed and they were left masters of the Island.

A short time after an American whaler coming into the Bay they deserted the Island, went on board the ship and were taken across to Peru, on the mainland. Some time after this the government of Chile placed a man and his family there to hold possession, and from time to time their place has been filled by others to the present occupants, the leader of whom is called Governor. At present, although the water is of the best quality the facilities for watering are poor, the time occupied at the shortest being two or three days. Would any number of vessels arrive at the same time, it must be longer. If some enterprising Yankee should come out here, he might improve the facilities, so that it would take but a few hours for a ship to water, make a fortune for himself, and this Island a great stopping place of the Pacific

not only to those California bound but to all the whalers cruising in these latitudes. But I left some of my fellow passengers on their way to the caves to which place I will accompany them. It being now dark we struck a light and a fire, and in a short time these prisons became light and warm and the seat of the most reckless mirth. Pots were suspended over the fire, from which came the fragrance of the native herb, but one pot in particular sang gaily on, hour after hour, telling us plain as pot could tell, that it contained thigh and legs, bones, hearts, livers, etc., but do not think reader that because in Crusoe's time the cannibals came over here and held their feast that these

thighs and legs, bones, hearts and livers belonged to men—O, no—don't think so for the world, they are only the remains of the great bird, the albatross, some of which measure fifteen and eighteen feet from tip to tip of their wings. . . .<sup>5</sup>

Such was Juan Fernandez in the mid-Victorian period. How different it is today! Island aerial bases may be the vogue of the twentieth century. But come what may Juan Fernandez will ever continue to the literary world of all time the flower of the sea of adventure that *Robinson Crusoe* made it.

<sup>5</sup> Journal of the Passage of the Ship Duxbury, February 9-June 23, 1849 (Friday 15th), Huntington Library, H. M. 234. (Printed with permission of the Henry E. Huntington Library.)

## Visual and Other Aids

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Much has been written concerning the poor quality of many of our radio programs when judged by valid educational standards. One phase of American radio broadcasts which has been severely criticized has been that of advertising. While we deplore, as much as anyone, the misleading, colored and unrealistic forms of radio advertising now prevalent, we see no chance for immediate and sudden improvement. We, therefore, propose that the social studies capitalize upon radio advertising as it now exists in such a way as to aid in its gradual transformation.

In order to do this we would have the class in social studies analyze radio advertising in order to ascertain the amount and type of propaganda employed. Before asking the students to carry on this activity, it would be well to provide them with an understanding of the principal techniques and devices used by propagandists. An excellent understanding of the nature of propaganda can be gained from a study of the materials published by the Institute for Propaganda Analysis.

The students can be asked to analyze radio advertising both as a classroom activity and individually in out-of-school time. For example, the pupil's sensitivity can be increased to the "band-wagon technique" through a discussion of advertising which appeals to the consumer to buy a particular product because all the "nice" people are using it. It might prove feasible to ask the pupils to write advertisements in which the only purpose is to inform the public.

Of course, we all acknowledge that there are many excellent radio programs which have very little ad-

vertising. The student's attention could be called to this type of program and the "good" compared with the "bad." They might even be led to enjoy good music by getting them to listen to programs merely to study the type of advertising used.

In this manner students may become more sensitive to the nature and uses of radio advertising. From this point the activity could reach out to an analysis of other forms of advertising and the pupil will be able to detect and analyze propaganda in other areas of life activity. It is hoped in this way to make the individual student a more intelligent consumer. He will also be able to appreciate legitimate, socially useful advertising. Thus, through his discriminating reaction to all forms of advertising, he will gradually be able to raise the level of advertising in general.

### NEWS NOTES

#### Films

*The Last Frontier*, a 16 mm. serial film, produced by RKO, has been released to film libraries by Commonwealth Pictures Corporation. This twelve episode film depicts the last stand of the Indian in the days of Wild Bill Hickok, Buffalo Bill and Custer. For information concerning the rental of this film, write to Commonwealth Pictures Corporation, 729 Seventh Avenue, New York City.

A group of one-reel Russian-made war newsreels, cultural shorts and civilian defense documentaries are available for rental or sale from Brandon Films Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York City. The films have English commentaries.

The following films are available: *Russia's Millions Mobilize*—a picturization of industrial and agricultural mobilization; guerilla groups, bomb shelter preparation. *The Red Army*—the military maneuvers and actual fighting of the Red Army. *For Honor, Freedom and Country*—scenes of the "scorched earth" policy, labor brigades, and the army in action. *Soviet Woman*—the work of women in civilian defense work. *Report from Moscow*—scenes

in a metallurgical plant and nurses drilling.

A *National Defense Bulletin* of motion pictures dealing with the war activities of the anti-axis powers has been prepared by Brandon Films. Included in the *Bulletin* are the following 16 mm. films: *Inside Europe*, *Inside Asia*, and *Inside Germany*.

Brandon Films has also released *Alert*, a one-reel 16 mm. film describing basic precautions and procedures for the average citizen.

## News and Comment

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### INTEGRATION VERSUS SUBJECTS

In the issue of *Secondary Education* for December, Henry Gratton Doyle, distinguished member of the staff of the George Washington University, made a fervent plea for teaching the so-called traditional subjects in the high schools ("Concerning 'Content-Subjects'"). He quoted with approval from Bagley, Bode, Kandel, and others, setting the best in the Essentialist position over against the worst in the Progressive.

As a good protagonist he served his antagonists by exposing their weaknesses. There is food for thought in the fact that teachers travelling on the newer educational roads often find themselves dealing with matters they know little or nothing about. A child-centered curriculum, which has blossomed in several forms and with various names, must inevitably lead a group of pupils to engage from time to time upon an activity requiring technical knowledge which the teacher himself does not have. Nor does he have the time to secure the grasp and insight which only the slow accumulation of knowledge and reflection upon it can give. In such a situation, with only a smattering of ignorance, can a teacher really fulfill his function?

On the elementary school level this problem is much less conspicuous than on the secondary and college levels. To educators it is a commonplace that much of the resistance of secondary school teachers to the philosophy which Professor Doyle passionately takes to task is due to the need to prepare secondary-school students for definite objectives, in vocations primarily. He insists that hard work and discipline belong in school no less than in other spheres of living. Democracy requires discipline, after its kind, just as autocracy does. Professor Doyle warns that democracy is threatened at the root if the

school levels down instead of tightening up.

The case for the child-centered curriculum, on the elementary level, was stated briefly and clearly in *The B.C. Teacher* for the same month. Dudley M. Fitzpatrick of the MacBride School, Vancouver (British Columbia), based it upon the experience with the integrated curriculum in the classrooms of many British Columbia schools ("Integrative Teaching"). The teachers in these schools accept the theory, rooted in the gestalt psychology, that subjects are merely means to be employed for the development of all sides of the student's personality. Attention is centered on an activity. The activity itself has meaning for the child because it has to do with his living. Materials for study are organized around the activity and are drawn from whatever subject-matter fields are useful to its successful pursuit.

In the classroom, the old, familiar regimentation commanded by the admonition: "Sit down, get to work, and stop talking," no longer serves. Expression displaces repression. But activities are not selected by whim. Nor are they imposed by the teacher. The class and the teacher together plan the activity, making sure of its worth and its suitability for the group, and determining the way to pursue it and the materials to use. Then, as the pupils work, the teacher counsels, directs, and assists. Better learning for living, in its best and broadest sense, in the opinion of the elementary-school teachers, resulted from this method than from the traditional "recitation."

These two articles present the two viewpoints. They seem complementary rather than antagonistic. Interested readers will recall the friendly debate between the noted leaders, Kilpatrick and Bagley, on Essentialism vs. Progressivism in recent numbers of *School and Society*, briefly described here in our issues of December and January.



## ESSENTIALS FOR PEACE

John Foster Dulles, distinguished lawyer, warned in the January number of *Fortune* ("Peace Without Platitudes") that we are likely to make only a truce after this war, and not a peace. In the Roosevelt-Churchill Atlantic Charter of August 14, 1941, he sees the seeds for future wars. The ends proposed in two of the Charter's Eight Points are good: to provide the people of all nations of the earth with "improved labor standards, economic advancement and social security" and to assure them all that they "may live out their lives in freedom from fear and want." But the means proposed in the other six points may defeat these ends.

For the means proposed imply peace enforcement primarily by Anglo-American military power. Inevitably those upon whom the enforcement is exerted will, in time, chafe and rebel. It is not enforcement but agreement that is necessary. If, under the Charter, a body representative of all the nations of earth existed, created in the interest of the general welfare, then peace would be possible. One is reminded of the federal union in America in 1789, which set up a body in the interest of the general welfare and not of any state or section.

Mr. Dulles drew attention to the fact that boundaries of peace have been pushed out since ancient times. Once those boundaries extended only to the limit of cities, and wars flourished between them. Later, the boundaries of peace were pushed far beyond the cities to the confines of nations, and wars—other than civil—occurred only between nations. Now we seem to be at the point where the boundaries of peace are to be pushed beyond the nations and they, like our cities, will fight no more. Such an extension means either the extinction of war or its confinement to interregional federations. However, tariffs and other trade regulations between states which are independent and unlimited national sovereignties, and other powers they possess, spell war and never peace. The Critical Period in American history exemplified the war dangers of the exercise of those powers by the states, as the period after 1789 exemplified the assurance of peace when such powers were transferred to a central, over-arching organization charged with the welfare of all.

So Mr. Dulles urges peace without victory. Use the Atlantic Charter but think in terms of all the nations and do not place the whole burden on a few nations like the United States and Great Britain. Britain has always and rightly feared a European federation, such as Hitler seeks to create, and has always found safety in a balance of the powers of Europe. Now the time has come to discard the balance in favor of a federation. Militarism in Germany must be destroyed. Those German states which crave greater autonomy should have it. But Germans no

less than Americans and Britons should have a voice in the body charged with promoting the general welfare of all. Mr. Dulles adds his voice to many others who believe that some kind of global federation is necessary. His warning that such a world order must rest upon the consent of the governed or else it will fail, strikes very close home to all Americans.

The Vice-President of the United States, Henry A. Wallace, writing in the *Atlantic Monthly* for January, expanded Mr. Dulles's warning about trade restrictions. In "Foundations of the Peace," Mr. Wallace declared that peace requires wise arrangements for the encouragement of trade and not merely carefully drawn national boundaries. "We know now that the modern world must be recognized for what it is—an economic unit—and that wise arrangements must be made so that trade will be encouraged."

Like Mr. Dulles, the Vice-President does not recommend all-out free trade, but urges control exercised not for a given state's personal benefit merely, but exercised in the general interest. He listed seven economic factors that will enter into any economic plan for genuine peace:

1. Need for universal access to raw materials, with protection of raw-material producers from violent income fluctuations.
2. Need for universal access to markets for goods produced.
3. The fact of trade barriers and tariffs between nations.
4. The fact that gold is the basis of exchange.
5. The part that credit does and can play in trade.
6. The close relationship between stable national currencies and trade.
7. Importance of adequate purchasing power within the nations.

Somehow, without fettering freedom and initiative, we must find ways to stabilize the production and the prices of raw materials. The Ever Normal Granary idea in this country is suggestive. Living standards must be raised around the globe, also, and Mr. Wallace discussed several possible ways for doing it. Whatever the essentials for peace in our time, it is quite evident that economic factors are foremost among them.

## WAR DOCUMENTS

*Current History* rendered a fine service to teachers of history, in its January issue. Nearly half of the space was given over to the presentation of the documents which tell the story of our involvement in the present war. Included are the President's Armistice Day Address, statements by him and by Secretary

Hull about neutrality repeal, various documents setting forth the negotiations between Japan and the United States during the few weeks before December 7, the American war message and the declaration of war, Britain's declaration, and the President's broadcast to the nation on December 9. In addition, Professor H. Nye Steiger summarized the five weeks of negotiations preceding the attack on Hawaii and the Philippines, and Alvin Adey, the editor, described other recent and related diplomatic and military events.

For the look ahead, it is worth while to turn to *Foreign Policy Reports*, the issue for January 1, on "The United States At War." The situation faced by each of the principals in the war is summed up. The likely theaters of war are pointed out and the military weight of the nations estimated. Barring catastrophic defeats, the handicaps of the Allies—distance, material, trained man power—will be overcome and superior productive power and man power will give them the advantage in a war of attrition. This summary is especially valuable because it assembles the favorable and unfavorable factors on both sides.

#### FUTURE OF LABOR

Increasingly, thoughtful men fear that certain union trends may permanently injure the cause of labor. The closed shop, particularly, contains elements of danger. The universal closed shop, under law, would place the control of the nation's labor supply in the hands of union leaders. Since the unions are not run democratically, such a situation would be bad. Like the medieval guilds, the unions would strangle themselves. Secret balloting, democratic methods for selecting and disposing of leaders, public accounting of funds, and other democratic essentials are urged to save unions from various diseases now threatening them. William Hard, well-known publicist, began a series of articles on the subject of labor with one entitled, "Should Labor Have Glass Pockets?" in the January number of *The Readers Digest*.

In *Fortune* for the same month, John Chamberlain argued that the closed shop will destroy democracy in labor ("Democracy and the Closed Shop"). Such discussions as these supply essential materials for classroom use.

#### U. S. PRESIDENT

The leading article in the January number of *Fortune* studied "The Presidency." It is often said that rarely has the ruler of any land as much power as the President of the United States. This article gives examples in support of that statement. Much attention is paid to the history of the war powers of our Presidents and to the reasons why the Constitution gave

such great power to them. In the opinion of this business man's magazine, after comparing F. D. Roosevelt with his great predecessors, "Mr. Roosevelt is simply exercising the constitutional and, with the exception of this lend-lease innovation, the traditional function of a President in time of national danger." His weaknesses are cataloged, along with his strengths.

The great Presidents—Jefferson, Jackson, Lincoln, Theodore Roosevelt, Wilson, and F. D. Roosevelt, who "must now be numbered" with them—were champions of the masses against the gentry, or big business as it came to be called. "All of them sought to give the masses not less but more freedom, by loosening the bonds of their economic servitude. All of them were hated and denounced by the gentry and big business." Although the article is primarily an evaluation of F. D. Roosevelt, it does throw light upon the powers of our Presidents and the nature of our political democracy.

#### CCC AND NYA

Last month, attention was drawn here to several articles on the Educational Policies Commission's pamphlet on "The Civilian Conservation Corps, the National Youth Administration, and the Public Schools." The pamphlet is provoking much discussion. In the *Teachers College Record* for December, Professor John K. Norton analyzed it at great length. In the January number of *The Nation's Schools*, Professor Arthur B. Moehlman summarized it.

One of the most trenchant criticisms of it came from the pen of Dr. Charles H. Judd, a leading figure in the National Youth Administration and formerly the head of the Department of Education of the University of Chicago. He is one of our great educators. From the vantage point of first-hand experience in both education and government he disagrees with the Educational Policies Commission. Writing on "The Real Youth Problem," in *School and Society* for January 10, Dr. Judd declared that the schools have not met and are not meeting the needs of youth. The Commission, he avers, instead of seeking the best means to serve youth, cries out against possible loss of jurisdiction by schools.

It was because the schools in the 1930's disregarded the problem of youth out of school and out of work that the federal government established the CCC and NYA and used public work as a means to provide the social adjustment, as traditional schooling did not and does not do. The problem is still with us. The existing curriculum will not solve it, especially with the unadjusted youth. And defense of a vested interest by school men will not solve it, either. In any event, here is a problem which all teachers should know and study.

## SECONDARY SCHOOL PLANTS

*The Nation's Schools* for January carried a twenty-four page portfolio on "Modern Secondary School Plants." The pictures, architects' plans, and descriptions of school equipment in all parts of the country make the portfolio an illuminating one. The two-page introduction by Professor Arthur B. Moehlman, the magazine editor, carries the arresting title, "Community-Centered Secondary Schools." His discussion deals no less with adult education within the secondary school plant than with youth education. It thinks in terms not of forty hours per week, in use of school plant, but of at least eighty-four hours. The plant—buildings and grounds—forms a community center for young and old. Education in all conceivable aspects—health, leisure, culture, fine and industrial arts, social relations and technics—should be centered there. The high school becomes the people's college, and education becomes distinct from mere book learning.

## LOCAL HISTORY

National history and world history are always local history also. For any event must happen in a locality. Teachers are becoming more and more aware that local history is not merely local, but frequently mirrors that of the nation. In *The School Review* for January, Homer L. Calkin of the Lyons Township High School, La Grange (Illinois), illustrated this thought by enumerating examples of classroom use of local history: "Local History: A Means of Better Understanding United States History."

*Progressive Education* for January, whose subject was "The Human Resources for Education," included an article on "Local History: A Neglected Resource." In it, Norman Studer of New York's Little Red School House described how he found local history of use in making history real. The recollections of old people in the community, diaries, photographs, public records, old buildings, and ruins afforded children practical experience in historical research and made the past live for them. As director of Camp Woodland in the Catskills, Mr. Studer drew his children, aged six to sixteen, into the study of the history of the region around the camp. They visited and interviewed old people, examined old factories, watched square dances, and noted other examples of folk culture. They searched out tales and songs, they worked out plays based on their research, and they presented them to the community in the auditorium of the nearby town church. Mr. Studer

recounted many of the specific things done by the children, in school and camp, to reconstruct history and share it with the community.

## FOR THE TEACHER

In January, the first issue of a new quarterly, the *Adult Education Journal*, appeared. It replaces the *Journal of Adult Education*, which has been referred to here from time to time. The new journal, much smaller in size, is the organ of the American Association for Adult Education (New York City). It gives full notes about happenings in the field of adult education, carries book reviews, and prints pertinent articles.

In *The Clearing House* for December, Stillman M. Hobbs described a twelfth grade unit on social change, "The Rochester Unit on Social Change." Mr. Hobbs is head of the social studies department of the Franklin High School, Rochester (New York). Last month, in this section, an account was given of a similar unit described by Dr. Warren W. Coxé in the November issue of the same journal. Mr. Hobbs stated the purposes of the unit and the activities pursued by the students to achieve those purposes. Such specific accounts of actual classroom procedures are always worthy of attention.

In the same issue of *The Clearing House*, Florence S. Harper described in a practical way how, in the Denver program, "Slow Learners Learn by Doing." Miss Harper first pointed out eight significant traits which usually distinguish the slow learner and then discussed the type of education needed in view of those traits. It could not, of course, differ basically in material from the education needed by the quicker neighbor, since slow and quick alike will share in the common community of living. The difference lay rather in guidance and method of teaching, with the emphasis upon doing, upon community contacts, and upon discussion, and not upon book learning.

This difference makes it necessary, at least until the problem has been worked through, to center attention upon a situation, with slow-learning pupils, rather than upon subjects. Past experience does not help much, since in the past those learners were not in school. Individual schools, where teachers together pool their thoughts and resources to meet the particular problem, disregarding subject-matter boundaries, are helping to amass a body of educational experience for the nation as a whole. From it, in time, tested principles and practices will be distilled for use with the so-called slow learners everywhere.



# Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia

*The Failures of Peace.* By Kent Forster. Washington: American Council on Public Affairs, 1941. Pp. vi, 159. \$2.50. Paper edition, \$2.00.

Dr. Forster's monograph provides a highly pertinent account of all the abortive peace moves and negotiations during the first World War and seeks an answer to the question as to why the war continued to the bitter end. There is clear and detailed analysis of the shifting currents of opinion within each of the belligerent countries and there is lucid exposition of all the complicated official and unofficial peace soundings from 1916 to 1918. The author's conclusion is "... that certain personalities—not more than a score in number all told—were the real obstacle to the search for a negotiated peace during the years 1914-1918." And the author's conclusion points his moral for the present: "If the lesson of 1914-1918 . . . does nothing else, it should emphasize the need for controlling and checking the *à outrance* elements in the present conflict."

The color of his account is strongly "revisionist" and suggests that the Allied premiers share equal responsibility with German leaders for the fight to a finish. One need not revive controversy over war responsibility, nor condone the imperialist "Secret Treaties" of the Allies, in order to remind the present age of the initial German declarations of war, the violation of Belgian neutrality, and the invasion and occupation of Allied territory. It is scarcely indulging in war hysteria to suggest that Bethmann's frank reference to the Belgian guarantee as a "scrap of paper" created a very natural suspicion concerning the value of pledges offered by the Imperial German government. Dr. Forster has emphasized too strongly Bethmann-Hollweg's disposition to seek a compromise peace. He tells us of Bethmann's offer via Raymond Gram Swing in December, 1914, to restore fully Belgian independence provided Germany were suitably indemnified for having been forced into war. He condemns Grey's moralistic intransigence in refusing to consider any such proposition, without ever describing—from official documents—Bethmann's extraordinary bid for British neutrality on July 29, 1914, offering assurances concerning Belgian independence *after the war*, coupled with similar assurances on behalf of French territory *in Europe*, but not in the colonies. Was it pure hypocrisy for Eyre Crowe to suggest that such proposals reflected discredit on the statesman who made them?

In the same way Dr. Forster's account of Bethmann's peace note of December 12, 1916, omits all reference to his prior correspondence with the military chiefs of Germany which formulated the peace aims to be achieved. These were: a dependent Polish kingdom, German annexation of Courland and Lithuania, economic protectorate and right of military occupation in Belgium—or, in default of the latter, annexation of Liège and surrounding territory—annexation of French Longwy and Briey, return of all German colonies except those in the Far East, and acquisition of the entire Congo state. To state these terms and to remember that the German High Command, which obtained absolute control within Germany from this period until its collapse in 1918, never substantially modified the terms, is relevant to an analysis of the "failures of peace."

The author alludes to these fundamental matters, but submerges their significance in the tortuous mazes of personal negotiation. There are more similarities in the "all or nothing" rigidities of the German military mind, then and now, than the author has seen fit to emphasize. Such emphasis would add to the force of his conclusion that this time something must be done to restrain the *à outrance* elements in the present struggle.

PAUL BIRDSALL

Williams College  
Williamstown, Massachusetts

*Federal Finances in the Coming Decade. Some Cumulative Possibilities, 1941-51.* By Carl Shoup. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. xii, 121. \$1.00.

Those who write books on the contemporary scene are likely to find their assumptions invalidated by the swift march of events. This is particularly true of Professor Shoup's latest work, completed in June, 1941. At that time, the author made twelve assumptions about the course of the war and the role of the American federal government. Among his hypotheses were: that the conflict would end in 1943 or 1944 in a British victory; that the United States would not send an expeditionary force; and that the American armament program would continue at the then high rate. Since Pearl Harbor and especially since President's Roosevelt's budget message of January 7, 1942, it is apparent that new calculations as to federal financing are necessary.

Nevertheless, Dr. Shoup's monograph is a valuable

contribution to the growing literature on current fiscal policy. He has carefully analyzed five possible sets of tax changes, including among other things a manufacturers' sales tax. If all these tax changes are used, Shoup estimates that the federal revenue will rise to a maximum of \$21,000,000,000 in 1944 but that even such a tax program will probably not prevent a substantial increase in prices during the next two years owing to the size of the prospective deficits.

The author next examines the possibilities of borrowing at the present low rates of interest and at higher rates (five per cent). A low rate of interest will make unavoidable an excessive sale of federal securities to commercial banks unless there is a "coercive drive" to sell Defense bonds to private individuals and corporations. (The Keynes plan is referred to but not discussed.) Borrowing at higher rates on a voluntary basis will increase interest charges but may prove a check to private spending and thus help to offset the tendency to a price rise produced by the government's own spending program. Dr. Shoup has not attempted to make outright predictions but his discussion throws much light on the enormously difficult problem of federal financing in the next ten years.

ROGER H. WELLS

Bryn Mawr College  
Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania

*Occupational Mobility.* By Omar Pancoast, Jr. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. ix, 155. \$1.75.

Here is a brief but meaty book which attacks the problem of unemployment from a new angle. The author's thesis is that unemployment can be minimized by increasing the ease with which workers can shift from one occupation to another. This can be done, Dr. Pancoast maintains, by laying more emphasis on the vocational training and retraining of the worker. He places the responsibility for doing this directly on the schools, without suggesting how they shall do it.

After examining classical and contemporary theories, the author concludes that inadequate attention has been given to what he calls a "blind spot" in economic thinking. This is the thinking about the "widespread practice of restricting supply as a means of artificially raising prices." (He includes labor under "supply" and wages under "prices" in his examination of the practice referred to). Although specific groups can, he says, benefit themselves by this policy, the effect on society as a whole is intolerable. "Not only are better opportunities to make a living pre-empted by a few groups, but the lack of buying power in the rest of the population condemns even this privileged fraction to a decreas-

ing market for what they sell and higher costs for what they buy." Hence the downward "spiral" of depression and unemployment, because adequate consumer demand is not maintained.

Dr. Pancoast argues this spiral could be reversed by reducing the oversupply of cheap labor and overcoming shortages of needed abilities by making it possible, through training, for "depressed" workers to shift to occupations where higher earnings indicate a greater relative need. Such transfers directly increase the total of consumer purchases because the poorer groups in the population must spend most of their earnings for consumer goods (Engel's Law). Thus consumer demand is kept up and all groups benefit, even those whose income might be temporarily lowered by invasion of their preserves by the shifted workers.

The author does not claim that occupational mobility is a panacea. Which is wise; for one must always be suspicious of efforts to explain complex phenomena like unemployment in terms of any one aspect. But he has made a significant contribution to the vast literature of this subject.

JAMES E. DOWNES

Summit High School  
Summit, New Jersey

*The Foundations of Conservation Education.* By Wesley C. Mitchell and Others. Washington, D.C.: The National Wildlife Federation, 1941. Pp. vi, 242. \$1.00. Paper edition, \$.60.

The third in a series of four "pamphlets" on conservation education, this book achieves its major objective: to emphasize the imperative need for widespread public education in the principles and problems of conservation.

The approach is, as the ecologist-contributor, Paul B. Sears, puts it, "one along all lines. . . . For conservation is really an attitude toward life, and a way of living." In keeping with this eclectic approach, essays are contributed by outstanding authorities in various branches of the natural sciences as well as by Wesley C. Mitchell in economics.

This procedure brings with it its almost inevitable strong and weak points. It affords varied points of view, but it is undesirably repetitious in definitions and examples. It opens up vistas of complex and significant interrelationships among economics, engineering, biology, and soil technology, but it fails to follow through.

It is unfortunate, from our own specialized social science point of view, that Dr. Mitchell's contribution is much the briefest of the six. In its twelve pages it barely skims the surface of the provocative topic "Conservation, Liberty, and Economics." As it is, although the book is quite successful in showing the need for conservation and its scientific

implications, it barely begins to intimate the institutional handicaps—political and economic—that stand in the way of its early consummation on a significant scale. Perforce, also, the social antidotes to our individualistic activities are rather under-emphasized.

In publishing this book the National Wildlife Federation has rendered a distinct service to the vital cause of conservation. Its Committee on Conservation Education has had distilled into a compact, inexpensive volume many of the fundamental problems in this field in its relations to both public policy and pedagogy. The social studies teacher will find it valuable, but its major orientation will render it most useful to the teacher of biology.

CHARLES COGEN

Bronx High School of Science  
Bronx, New York

*General Washington's Correspondence Concerning the Society of the Cincinnati.* Edited by Edgar Erskine Hume. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1941. Pp. xlv. 472. \$4.50.

This volume, edited by the president of the Society of the Cincinnati in Virginia, is the first publication of the society based exclusively on its archives, which are very rich in Washingtonia. For the first time, we have in one volume a full body of correspondence relative to the Cincinnati, letters written to Washington as well as those from him. General Washington was the first president of the Cincinnati, the oldest military society in America, and as such he carried on an extensive correspondence with many prominent men in this country and abroad. When the society was attacked, as it frequently was, by Jefferson, the Adamses, Jay, Gerry, and others, Washington defended it and at the same time tried to modify its rules and policies so as to eliminate criticism.

Included in this interesting collection of documents are letters to and from Henry Knox, Lafayette, Horatio Gates, Count de Grasse, Nathanael Greene, Alexander Hamilton, Thomas Jefferson, John Paul Jones, Baron de Kalb, Arthur Lee, Henry Lee, Pierre-Charles L'Enfant, James Madison, Thomas Paine, Count de Rochambeau, Baron de Steuben, and many other noteworthy men. The letters are arranged chronologically, 1783-1800.

There is a nineteen page historical sketch of the society and a supplement of fifty-four pages devoted to short biographical sketches of those with whom Washington corresponded on the subject of the society.

HUGH T. LEFLER

University of North Carolina  
Chapel Hill, North Carolina

*English Political Pluralism.* By Henry M. Magid. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. 100. \$1.25.

"The conclusion of this essay," its author states, "is that the nature of freedom can be discussed more adequately on the basis of a distinction between social freedom (freedom in the community) and political freedom (freedom for parties)." Elaborated, this forms the theme of the fifth part of the essay, the other four being a brief introduction which suggests rather than provides a definition of political pluralism, and three analytical reviews of the ideas of the late John Neville Figgis and of Messrs. Cole and Laski. Mr. Magid's ideas may not meet with universal endorsement, but his book makes a real contribution to our knowledge of modern political thought. He is particularly happy in his account of the theories of Figgis about groups, and their free association in the state: only in such can true self realization be found: too great an emphasis upon unity and upon state sovereignty may react to the detriment of group personalities and the development of the freedom only found within them. The function of the state must be to regulate these groups within itself so that each may enjoy the maximum opportunity for expression.

G. D. H. Cole has added to these theories a definition of the groups which form the pluralist state, and which represent functions rather than parties or persons. The congresses of functional groups both in smaller and larger areas will coordinate and regulate relations between the groups of which they are composed. Only a few matters like war and peace will remain susceptible to changes of policy. In the essay on Laski's "Individualistic Pluralism," Mr. Magid clearly traces the adoption and abandonment of pluralism by his third subject and so forbids the critic the drastic inquiry as to why he included so dubious an example. Possibly the book would have gained by more of the constructive criticisms of the brief conclusion and less on Mr. Laski; but it is hard to quarrel with so penetrating a study and students will undoubtedly profit from all parts of it. Mr. Magid has succinctly analyzed the timely problem of freedom and organization in modern democracy.

CAROLINE ROBBINS

Bryn Mawr College  
Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania

*Iowa—The Rivers of Her Valleys.* By William J. Petersen. Iowa City: The State Historical Society of Iowa, 1941. Pp. 381. \$3.00.

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Mr. Petersen has written one of the best books of its kind which has yet appeared. Excellent maps accompany the history of each river and add much to the value of the volume. There are about forty

pages of notes and references and a good index.

HUGH T. LEFLER

University of North Carolina  
Chapel Hill, North Carolina

*Education for Death: The Making of a Nazi.* By Gregor Ziemer. New York: Oxford University Press, 1941. Pp. 208, \$2.00.

Title and jacket indicate a warning to our land against things which must never happen here. The author has the right to warn us: he is an experienced educator and a keen observer; he succeeded in getting access to all kinds of schools and educational—largely identical with party—institutions and activities, and getting in touch with all the school authorities from the Reich's minister down to the single teacher, with youth "leaders" and students of all grades and ages, boys and girls.

Dr. Ziemer, formerly headmaster of the American School in Berlin, need not descend into the depths of an alleged nazi-philosophy. He sees, hears and puts down his notes; compares his actual experience with the official *Teachers' Manual* and other documents; leads us through all the stages of total nazi education, which begins with the Hitler brides and expectant mothers, from the pre-school children to the "Pimpf," the "Jungmaedel," "Jungvolk," "Bund deutscher Maedel," Hitler-Youth" and university



students. All children "belong" to the Fuehrer. There is practically no gap, no escape. It is a total education of the boys to become soldiers, of the girls to become—discounting legitimacy—mothers of soldiers, destined to fight and to die for the Fuehrer. We observe classes in history, nature study, geography, German, and other subjects. Whatever the subject may be, the instruction always is filled with hatred, war, conquest, glorification of the master race. There need not be mentioned the "Erbgesundheitsgesetz" with all its implications and applications to reveal an appalling picture of the inhuman ruthlessness of an educational world which no human mind would ever have believed possible to become real. Thus we understand and approve of the author's challenge to show the world that American education "cannot only prepare for life, but can combat death."

MAX LEDERER

The Library of Congress  
Washington, D.C.

*Brave Ships of England and America.* By Joseph Leeming. New York: Thomas Nelson and Sons, 1941. Pp. viii, 344, Illustrated. \$2.50.

This attractively-written book is timely in view of the sea battles of the present. It presents the story of ships of the past that have played an important part in history from Edward III's flagship at the Battle of Sluis to the sinking of the *Bismarck* in the Second World War. The author points out that sea power depends not only on war vessels, but on merchant vessels as well, and thus are included descriptions of English and American ships of discovery and commerce. Tales of lonely voyages, real adventure, great courage, and enduring achievement enliven the well-told story of famous vessels of the past. The volume, written in a lucid style, brings together much historical information about the sea-faring activities of Britain and the United States. Illustrations by Grattan Condon add to the value of the book.

*Education in a Democracy.* Edited by Newton Edwards. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. Pp. xi, 160. \$1.25.

In attempting to build a state which will provide the largest possible opportunities for all, our fathers correctly evaluated the fundamental importance of popular education.

Education on all levels has, it seems to me, two objectives. First, to provide the state with competent and honest leadership. Second, to provide the individual with that type of education which prepares one to find the deeper satisfactions in life. There is often a discouraging vagueness about fundamental objectives in the field of education. The final test of a program of education is not to be found so much

in the curriculum as in the lives of those who more or less proudly bear a college degree.

The volume entitled *Education in a Democracy* is made up of eight lectures given at the University of Chicago on the Walgreen Foundation. While each lecture was delivered by a different individual, there is a splendid coherence in the series. It furnishes one with thought-provoking material for creative thinking.

The chapter by Professor Newton Edwards on *The Evolution of American Educational Ideals* and the chapter by Professor Havighurst on *Education for Social Cohesion in a Democracy* are to be commended. I wish that every college teacher might read this stimulating volume.

HENRY W. A. HANSON

Gettysburg College,  
Gettysburg, Pennsylvania

*Social Norms and the Behavior of College Students.* By J. Edward Todd. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. xi, 190. \$2.10.

If higher education is to fulfil its functions, it must participate in the improvement of culture norms, because of the student's dynamic relation to his culture. Hence, Dr. Todd's investigation of the relation between the American culture and students in transition from high school to college, based on the case studies and questionnaires of the study of the transition from school to college, is an important one.

The ideals, attitudes, and behavior of the six boys who scored highest on each one of the six scales of the Allport-Vernon Study of Values are considered in relation to their environment, and to the influence exerted on them by the first year of college. Their close relationship to the American pattern is shown in detail, with a discussion of the implication of these and some other findings.

The material is well organized, although the style and manner of presentation are, if anything, too careful. The data is intensive and reliable, and there is a careful presentation of the method used. There is ample documentation and a detailed appendix. All concepts are carefully defined and the frame of reference, namely the pattern of American culture, is given a pertinent summary.

MARJORIE PFAELZER

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

#### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

*Johann Conrad Beissel.* By Walter C. Klein. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1942. Pp. vii, 218. \$2.25.

Life of the founder of the Seventh Day Baptist monastic order at Ephrata.

# McKINLEY DESK OUTLINE MAPS

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.....	75ab, 85abc, 104ab	.....	28aa, 71ab, 81abc, 100ab
North America (State & Province bds.)		World, Divided at 60° East Longitude	
.....	25aa, 79a	(no bds.) .....	108ab
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*War as a Social Institution: The Historian's Perspective.* Edited by Jesse D. Clarkson and Thomas C. Cochran. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. xvii, 333. \$3.50.

Most of the papers on war read at the 1940 meeting of the American Historical Association. The five principal topics are: the causes and strategy of war, the effect of war on neutrality and the United States, and on social institutions.

*Modern History.* By Carlton J. H. Hayes and P. T. Moon. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Fourth Edition, Pp. xiv, 975. Illustrated. \$2.56.

A successful, well-organized text, with stress upon economic and social history, and no timid view of causes and effects. Lavishly illustrated.

*Great Men and Women of Poland.* Edited by Stephen P. Mizura. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942. Pp. xxviii, 397. Illustrated. \$4.00.

An informal and dramatic compendium which gives a panorama of the history of Poland in biographical form. Recommended addition for school libraries.

*Some Historians of Modern Europe.* Edited by Bernadotte Schmitt. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942. Pp. viii, 533. \$5.00.

A very valuable addition to historical literature. The discussions of twenty-two historians furnish stimulating variety. The common unity is solely a devotion to history.

*World History.* By Carlton J. H. Hayes, P. T. Moon, and John W. Wayland. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Revised Edition. Pp. xv, 920. Illustrated. \$2.56.

The key theme of this well-known text is the struggle between democracy and autocracy. Skilful condensation, broad scope, concise style with full teaching equipment.

*Social Research: a Study in Methods of Gathering Data.* By George A. Lundberg. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1942. Second Edition. Pp. xx, 426. Tables. \$3.25.

This is a completely revised edition. Emphasis is placed on practical problems of research. Recent criticism and experience are carefully presented.

*Remaking America.* By Jay Franklin. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942. Pp. xvi, 286. Illustrated. \$3.00.

An experienced Washington columnist presents

an enthusiastic appreciation of the progress of the past decade.

*Defense of the Western Hemisphere.* By Earl S. Kalp and Robert M. Morgan. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1941. Pp. vi, 66. Illustrated. 60 cents.

A new pamphlet for high schools in the popular Unit Studies in American Problems. Concluding chapter is on education.

*Builders of Latin America.* By Watt Stewart and Harold F. Peterson. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942. Pp. xiii, 343. Illustrated. \$1.68.

A capable and usable text for junior high schools.

*Party Government.* By E. E. Schattschneider. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1942. Pp. xi, 219. \$1.25.

An incisive volume in the American Government in Action Series. Presents the essential soundness of party politics.

*The Torch of Liberty.* By Frederic A. Kummer. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Company, 1941. Pp. ix, 300. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Fourteen vivid episodes used to pen an appealing success story of freedom through the ages.

*The American and His Food; a History of Food Habits in the United States.* By Richard O. Cummings. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1941. Revised Edition. Pp. xiii, 291. Illustrated. \$2.50.

An important and popular social study of diet and health since 1789.

*Two Thousand Miles up the Amazon.* By Frances N. Ahl. Boston: The Christopher Publishing Company, 1941. Pp. xii, 244. \$2.00.

Information and excitement on Brazil's vast hinterland.

*It's the Gypsy in Me.* By Konrad Bercovici. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1941. Pp. 337. \$2.75.

An absorbing autobiography, full of interesting side-lights on many notables met during a full and varied life which has included a vast literary output.

*The United States and Civilization.* By John U. Nef. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942. Pp. xviii, 421. \$3.00.

A provocative, thoughtful analysis by an author who is concerned with our part in building a civilization worthy of man at his best during and after the present turmoil. It is also an interesting philosophy of history.